DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 095 646 EA 006 379

TITLE	Leadership for Improving Instruction: Yearbook 1960.
INSTITUTION	Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE	60
NOTE	208p.
AVAILABLE FROM	Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Suite 1100, 1701 K Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20006 (Stock Number 610-17454, $4.00. Quantity discounts, payment must accompany order)
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.75 HC Not Available from EDRS. PLUS POSTAGE
DESCRIPTORS	Administrator Role; Bibliographies; *Curriculum Development; Educational Change; Group Dynamics; Guidance Personnel; Inservice Programs; *Instructional Improvement; *Leadership; *Leadership Qualities; *Leadership Training; Principals; School Superintendents; Teachers
IDENTIFIERS	Curriculum Consultants

ABSTRACT

Educational leadership is designed as that behavior among individuals or groups which causes both the individuals and the groups to move toward educational goals that are increasingly mutually acceptable to them. Democratic leadership is situation and goal centered and is a function of the interaction of persons whose uniqueness is respected and whose contributions are nurtured. This book gives much attention to emerging leaders, whether they be teachers, curriculum consultants, superintendents, principals, or guidance specialists. All individuals and groups have leadership potential and exhibit leader behavior to some degree. Official leadership assignments may either enhance or reduce the effectiveness of leader behavior. Much attention is given, therefore, to the ways in which the official leader may increase his effectiveness through achieving a mutuality of goals and group solidarity. (Author/WM)

ED 095646

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION
THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

LEADERSHIP FOR IMPROVING INSTRUCTION

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development
A department of the National Education Association
1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

EA 006 379

YEARBOOK 1960

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS COPYRIGHTED MATERIAL BY MICROFICHE ONLY HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
ASCD
TO ERIC AND ORGANIZATIONS OPERATING UNDER AGREEMENTS WITH THE NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION FURTHER REPRODUCTION OUTSIDE THE ERIC SYSTEM REQUIRES PERMISSION OF THE COPYRIGHT OWNER "

Copyright 1960

ASSOCIATION FOR SUPERVISION AND CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

A department of the
National Education Association of the United States
1201 Sixteenth Street, Northwest
Washington 6, D.C.

Price $3.75

Library of Congress Catalogue Card Number: 44-6213

FROM THE ASSOCIATION

THE ASSOCIATION'S 1960 Yearbook is a worthy addition to a list of outstanding publications. The topic of leadership for improving instruction is identical with the central purpose of our organization. A new volume, and especially such a well-developed one, in the area of our greatest concern demonstrates and advances this interest.

The great expansion of education certain to occur in the 1960's focuses renewed attention upon the complex responsibilities of instructional leadership. With the increasing multiplication of their numbers and of their functions, leaders in instructional improvement may be expected to welcome the new ideas, the synthesis of ideas and practices, and the challenge presented by ASCD's 1960 Yearbook. The publication should be highly useful to all persons engaged in, or preparing for, instructional leadership.

The Association has long emphasized the cooperative nature of effective leadership in instruction. It is most appropriate, therefore, for this yearbook to involve the contributions of more than 200 persons representing a wide range of leadership positions. We are deeply grateful to all these persons for their contributions, and to the Yearbook Committee responsible for securing them. The committee's chairman, Glen Hass, has done an exemplary job in coordinating the planning, development and publication of a significant professional volume, as indeed has each committee member, writer and reviewer.

From its inception this volume benefited through the experience and insight of G. Robert Koopman, who represented the Executive Committee as continuing reader of the manuscript and adviser to the Yearbook Committee.

Margaret Gill, executive secretary of the Association, read and commented upon the original manuscript. Robert R. Leeper, editor and associate secretary, ASCD, worked with the manuscript in its several stages, did final editing on the volume and directed its production. Ruth P. Ely, ASCD editorial assistant, secured permissions to quote. Ann Marie McGovern and Carol Bluford, of the NEA Publications Division, assisted in paging, proofreading and other aspects of production. Design of cover, title page and chapter headings is by the NEA Publications Division, Kenneth B. Frye, artist.

November 1959 — WILLIAM M. ALEXANDER, *President*
For the Executive Committee

CHAPTER

Contents

From the Association . . . iii
The 1960 Yearbook Committee . . . ix
Introduction . . . 1

ONE **Imperative Demands upon Educational Leaders** . . . 5
Nature of Responses to Challenge . . . 6
  Retreat to Authoritarianism Is Not the Answer . . . 6
  Retreat by Default Is Unacceptable . . . 7
Forward Movement to Higher Levels of Democratic Leadership Is Needed . . . 8
A Time of Fateful Decision . . . 9
Persistent Problems of Relationships . . . 9
  Early Civilizations Sought To Resolve Problems of Relationships . . . 10
  Search for Freedom and Individualism Characterized Early American History . . . 11
  Modern Ideologies Center Attention on These Relationships . . . 12
Clarifying These Relationships—A Task Confronting Today's Educational Leaders . . . 14
Assumptions Basic to Examination of Leadership . . . 15
  An Institution Must Be Viewed in the Framework of the Whole Society . . . 15
  Leadership Is Situationally Centered . . . 16
  Democracy Is Always Capable of Improvement . . . 18
New Findings That Should Be Integrated into Our Concept of Leadership . . . 19
  Men Seek a Cause for Which To Live . . . 20
  Desire for Success Often Leads to Conformity . . . 20
  Being Alone or Different Is Not Easy . . . 21
  Feelings Are Important . . . 22
Summary . . . 23

TWO **A Concept of Educational Leadership** . . . 25
A Concept of Leadership . . . 27
Educational Leadership Tasks . . . 28
  Task I. To Help the People of the School Community Define Their Educational Goals and Objectives . . . 29
  Task II. To Facilitate the Teaching-Learning Process—Develop Greater Effectiveness in Teaching . . . 33
  Task III. To Build a Productive Organizational Unit . . . 38
  Task IV. To Create a Climate for Growth and the Emergence of Leadership . . . 44
  Task V. To Provide Adequate Resources for Effective Teaching . . . 48

CHAPTER

Why We Have Difficulty in Achieving These Tasks 51
  Long History of an Authoritarian-Oriented Theory of Leadership 52
  Democracy Versus the Authoritarian Concept of Leadership 52
  Failure To Solve the Authority Problem 53
  Lack of Precision in the Definition of Leadership 54
Emergence of New Theory about Leadership 55
Philosophy of Leadership 57

An Organizational Structure Consistent with a Democratic

  Principles of Organization Consistent with a Modern Theory of Leadership 58
  Critical Areas in the School's Organizational Structure 61
Summary 63
Bibliography 64

THREE **Expectations That Influence Leaders** 67
Nature of Role Expectancies and Role Conflicts 68
  The Curriculum Worker 69
  The Principal 70
  The Teacher 72
  Other Positions 74
Reason for Diversity in Expectations 75
  Major Reference Points 75
  Socially Oriented Reasons 76
  Individually Oriented Reasons 78
Consequences of Role Conflict and Confusion 80
Clarification of Role Perceptions and the Resolution of Role Conflicts 82
Summary 85
Bibliography 85

FOUR **Educational Leaders in Action** 88
Some Convictions Regarding Instructional Improvement 88
  Some Educational Leadership Tasks 89
Accomplishing Educational Leadership Tasks 90
  Helping People of the School Community Define Their Educational Goals and Objectives 90
  Facilitating the Teaching-Learning Process—Developing Greater Effectiveness in Teaching 93
  Building a Productive Organizational Unit 97
  Creating a Climate for Growth and the Emergence of Leadership 101
  Providing Adequate Resources for Effective Teaching and Learning 103

CHAPTER

Official Leadership Roles and Responsibilities in Instructional Improvement . . . 107
  The Teacher . . . 108
  The Principal . . . 110
  The Instructional Consultant . . . 113
  The Guidance Worker . . . 116
  The Assistant Superintendent for Instruction or the Director of Instruction . . . 117
  The Superintendent of Schools . . . 119
  Consultants from Outside the System . . . 124
The Search for Leadership . . . 126

FIVE **Educational Leaders: Discovery and Development** . . . 127
What Are the Assumptions? . . . 128
Identification of Potential Leaders . . . 128
  Existing Practices in Leadership Identification . . . 129
  Problems in Recognition of Leadership Capacity . . . 130
  An Environment That Encourages Emerging Leadership . . . 131
  Need for Early Identification of Potential Official Leaders . . . 132
  Situations To Test Potential Leaders and Improve Leadership Ability . . . 133
Process of Selection of Official Leaders . . . 138
  Selection of the Leader for a Particular Situation . . . 139
  The Interview as Part of the Process . . . 140
  Staff Participation in the Process . . . 140
  Experimental Techniques in Selecting Leaders . . . 141
  A Comprehensive Program of Selection . . . 143
The Preparation of Leaders . . . 144
  Graduate Education for Leaders . . . 145
  Trends in University and College Programs . . . 148
  Trends in School In-Service Programs . . . 152
Unmet Needs in Leadership Education . . . 155
Bibliography . . . 158

SIX **Appraisal: A Method for Improving Instructional Leadership** . . . 160
Developing and Using Appraisal Processes . . . 160
  Leader Behaviors Are Aspects of a Developmental Process . . . 161
  Widely Varying Situations Require Custom-Made Appraisal Procedures . . . 161
  Teaching-Learning Processes Are Complex . . . 162
  Appraisal Must Be Undertaken . . . 162
Criteria for Appraising the Effectiveness of Leadership and Instruction . . . 163
Appraisal Techniques and Procedures . . . 169

CHAPTER

How the Superintendent Might Proceed 170
How a Principal Might Proceed 172
How a Supervisor Might Proceed 174
How a Teacher Might Proceed 176
General Suggestions for Other Leaders 177
Summary 177
Bibliography 178

SEVEN **Democratic Leadership and the Future** 180
Urgent Need for Increased Democratic Educational Leadership 181
The Nature of Democratic Educational Leadership 182
Leaders in Action 183
Discovery and Development of Leaders 184
Appraisal of Democratic Instructional Leadership 184
Criteria for Appraising Democratic Instructional Leadership 185
Significance of Democratic Educational Leadership for the Years Ahead 186

Appendix 187
ASCD Board of Directors 192
ASCD Executive Committee 192
ASCD Headquarters Staff 194
Index 195

The 1960 Yearbook Committee

Glen Hass, *Chairman*
Professor of Education, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida

Mary A. Adams
Assistant Superintendent, Elementary Education, Baltimore Public Schools, Baltimore, Maryland

Maurice R. Ahrens
Professor and Head, Department of Elementary Education, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida

Vernon E. Anderson
Dean, College of Education, University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland

Herschel K. Bennett
Deputy Superintendent in Charge of Instruction, Dearborn, Michigan

Charles L. Boye
Associate Professor of Education, Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan (Deceased)

Harold D. Drummond
Professor of Elementary Education, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee

Paul N. Johnson
Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Instruction, Livonia Public Schools, Livonia, Michigan

Earl C. Kelley
Professor of Education, Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan

Albert Klevan
Assistant Professor of Education, Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan

Margaret Lindsey
Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York

Gordon N. Mackenzie
Professor of Education and Head, Department of Curriculum and Teaching, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York

Robert B. Myers
Director, P. K. Yonge Laboratory School, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida

Gertrude Noar
  National Director, Department of Education, Anti-Defamation League, B'nai B'rith, New York, New York

John A. Ramseyer
  Professor of Education, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio

Mary Neel Smith
  Principal, Ash Grove School, Denver, Colorado

Harold M. Wilson
  Principal, Wakefield High School, Arlington, Virginia

INTRODUCTION

THIS ASCD Yearbook, as its title indicates has to do with leadership for the improvement of instruction in today's schools. Because leadership is a shifting and dynamic concept in a period of change such as we are experiencing, the 1960 Yearbook Committee has not found it easy to prepare a book on this topic.

The committee began its work in 1957. It reached an early agreement regarding the audience which it hoped the yearbook might attract. The committee recognized that all persons engaged in the educational enterprise—teachers, supervisors, principals, students, parents, superintendents, guidance specialists, curriculum consultants—perform leadership functions and are vitally interested in an analysis of leadership. The committee decided, therefore, that this yearbook should be addressed to all of these individuals. This book has been written for and should prove useful to all persons who are concerned with leadership in school work.

Persons in various official leadership assignments will find sections of this yearbook particularly addressed to them. Through the use of the index, teachers, curriculum consultants, superintendents, principals and guidance specialists may each readily find those sections which apply to them.

The committee believes that the leadership principles and methods which are described can and should be used by teachers in the classrooms of a democracy. It is hoped that many teachers will read the yearbook and as they do so, will think in terms of their roles and responsibilities with children and youth.

This book should be especially useful in connection with the in-service education of official leaders and the discovery and development of potential leaders. It has been planned to be particularly useful in leadership education workshops and courses which are now offered in many universities and school systems. It should be especially helpful in university courses in administration, supervision, human relations and curriculum improvement.

The Yearbook Committee has attempted to practice the leadership principles which it discusses. While the writing of each chapter has been finally accomplished by one or two persons and edited by the Yearbook Committee chairman, the entire committee and numerous other persons have reviewed each chapter many times and have made extensive suggestions. An advisory committee has also assisted in the preparation of each chapter and these persons have made many helpful suggestions. More than 200 persons have been active in the preparation of the total book. Ten superintendents, who are active in leadership roles in the American Association of School Administrators, reviewed sections of the yearbook and offered their suggestions. In the committee's view, it is very rewarding to involve many persons in the identification and achievement of group goals.

As a basis for understanding the yearbook, the committee has defined educational leadership as that behavior among individuals or groups which causes both the individual and the groups to move toward educational goals that are increasingly mutually acceptable to them. Democratic leadership is situationally and goal centered and is a function of the interaction of persons whose uniqueness is respected and whose contributions are nurtured. This book gives much attention to emerging leaders because all individuals and groups have leadership potential and exhibit leader behavior to some degree. Official leadership assignments may either enhance or reduce the effectiveness of leader behavior. Much attention, therefore, is given to the ways in which the official leader may increase his effectiveness through achieving a mutuality of goals and group solidarity.

Chapter One, "Imperative Demands upon Educational Leaders," written by Margaret Lindsey and Ernest Schwarcz, presents today's setting which challenges educational leadership as it perhaps has never been previously challenged. Leadership which is situationally centered, it states, includes the dominant values of a people that make explicit what a leader shall be and how he shall behave. The chapter forcefully delineates our need for forward movement to higher levels of democratic leadership.

In Chapter Two, "A Concept of Educational Leadership," John Ramseyer explains the theory of leadership presented in the yearbook and describes the agreements among researchers in the fields of psychology, sociology, anthropology, business administration, and education which support this theory. The chapter lists and discusses five educational leadership tasks which grow out of a situationally centered view of leadership. These tasks constitute fundamental aspects of educational leadership in operation. Subsequent chapters are keyed to these facets of leadership.

Chapter Three, "Expectations That Influence Leaders," has been written for the committee by Gordon Mackenzie. This chapter makes the assumptions that the productivity of the school and the morale of its staff are closely related to the clarity, interrelatedness and extent of agreement as to the various leadership roles. Each person's perception of his role determines his action. How this affects the superintendent, principal, supervisor, curriculum specialist, and teacher is extensively discussed. It is emphasized that the perceptions of the role of the teacher are of major importance. The social and personal reasons for the present confusion regarding roles are presented. Practical proposals for clarifying role perceptions are also indicated.

Chapter Four, "Educational Leaders in Action," has been prepared by Paul Johnson and Harold Wilson. This chapter advances a number of the exciting results which occur when leaders practice the leadership methods described in Chapters Two and Three. These reports of actual practice are organized around the educational leadership tasks defined in Chapter Two. Here again, attention is specifically given to the various official leaders—the teacher, principal, supervisor, instructional consultant, guidance counselor, director of instruction, superintendent and the consultant from outside the system. The work of citizens advisory committees is also discussed.

Chapter Five, "Educational Leaders: Discovery and Development," has been prepared for the committee by Mary Adams and Vernon Anderson. It raises and discusses fundamental questions regarding how we can recognize potential leaders in order to avoid waste of human resources and how we prepare persons for leadership when we know that the use of power may destroy a leader's effectiveness. The chapter discusses the leader's need for skills and insight in human development, group dynamics, human relations, and community structure; and it examines ways of nurturing such leadership. It analyzes many of the present innovating practices in the identification and development of both emergent and official leaders. Finally, unmet needs in leadership identification and selection are indicated.

Chapter Six, "Appraisal: A Method for Improving Instructional Leadership," has been developed by Harold Drummond. Martin Garrison contributed extensively to the original outline for this chapter. It is designed to help teachers, curriculum consultants, supervisors, parents, principals, guidance specialists, directors of instruction, superintendents and other interested citizens answer the question, "How can we use what we already know, or discover what we need to know, to improve the quality of leadership for the improvement of instruction?" The chapter proposes a list of criteria which may be used for evaluating leadership practice and suggests guidelines to be followed in their use. Separate sections discuss ways in which each of the official leaders might proceed in using appraisal processes to improve instructional leadership.

Chapter Seven, "Democratic Leadership and the Future," has been written by Glen Hass. This chapter attempts to place in perspective a number of the major ideas found in other sections of the yearbook. It identifies the four major parts of the yearbook and attempts to show how each of the preceding chapters deals with an integral aspect of leadership. The concluding section discusses the significance of democratic educational leadership for the years ahead.

The research on leadership which is summarized in the yearbook is clearly consistent with a democratic theory of behavior. Principles of leadership apparently can be discovered but their application to a specific situation is another matter. Each situation has a unique set of circumstances; therefore, creativity, imagination, and adjustment of leader behavior are constantly necessary.

For these reasons, the Yearbook Committee believes that it is especially important to note that the purpose of this book is not to proffer specific solutions but to stimulate thinking, discussion, study and evaluation of present leadership practices. Particularly because of our heritage of local control of education, leadership practices and evaluative methods must be tailor-made for each school situation. This book is a beginning in a field that requires widespread and continuing study to insure our survival as a democratic society.

GLEN HASS, *Chairman*
The ASCD 1960 Yearbook Committee

CHAPTER ONE

IMPERATIVE DEMANDS UPON EDUCATIONAL LEADERS

AMERICAN educational leaders are challenged today as they have not been for decades—challenged by a tug of war between two opposing forces. On the one hand the educator finds himself trying to serve a society suffering from the jitters. There is the basic and pervading fear that an outside force may become so strong that it will prevent this nation from continuing to practice democratic values. There is the reality that other costs have reached such levels that expansion and improvement of education are made to seem too costly a luxury. There are loud accusations against the leadership of schools and colleges for failure to produce certain results—results which accord with the values and interests of the particular accuser. Consequently, large segments of this jittery society are putting pressure on educational leadership to institute practices that theory, experience and research indicate are not effective or consistent with the goals of a democracy.

On the other hand, a mass of significant new information being made available through the behavioral sciences is having a quite different impact on the informed educational leader. He finds himself challenged by the idea that the best knowledge and practice of democratic leadership developed during the past three decades are not adequate today. In the first stages of revolt against authoritarian patterns, even small and inadequate amounts and kinds of democratic practice are a welcome relief; individuals usually are grateful for any chance to exercise autonomy and judgment in connection with their work.

As people have more experience with responsible participation, however, they become less satisfied with the first fumbling attempts of leaders and those led. Group members develop new skills, understandings and expectations. They feel intuitively that better experiences are possible with the development of more effective leadership skills. Many of them know of research in individual and group dynamics and wish to have the findings applied in their own working situations. Many educational leaders today are experiencing pressure from the well-informed individuals with whom they are associated and from new knowledge awaiting application and use.

Nature of Responses to Challenge

Educational leaders must respond with conviction and action to challenges created by the tensions and pressures of contemporary American society, which now finds itself in a world ridden by conflict. At the same time, all persons engaged in educational endeavor are summoned to act in response to new insights gained from theory and practice of democratic leadership in group situations. If democracy is to survive, response by leaders cannot be a deliberate, cynical retreat to authoritarianism or a retreat, by default, because of lack of skill in dealing with new conditions.

Retreat to Authoritarianism Is Not the Answer

Pressures to use handy short cuts to remedy all ills, real and imagined, are so difficult to withstand that many individuals are succumbing. In some places, appeasement, especially in the form of a return to authoritarian ways of operating schools and teaching children, seems to be the order of the day. For example, a board of education member approached a school superintendent with a report of criticism by certain citizens that high school students were not getting enough work in academic fields and that there was too much time wasted on unimportant matters, such as homemaking, art, driver education and student government. For years this superintendent had worked democratically with his staff in carrying on study and experimentation as a basis for arriving at decisions on curriculum and teaching. Now, however, he completely reversed this pattern. He issued an edict that all high school students must now take four years of each of four academic subjects, that teachers must raise their standards for grading pupils, that assignments must be given in every class and that "unimportant" courses must be eliminated from the curriculum.

In another instance the teachers and the principal in an elementary school, in cooperation with the parents, had been engaged for two years in systematic study of their school population and community. Suddenly their efforts to establish a sound basis for selecting and organizing experiences to be offered children in the school came to an abrupt end. This point was reached when, in response to an editorial criticizing the reading program as inadequate, the principal (joined by three teachers) proposed that this group forego further study. Moreover, he suggested that members of the group focus their attention on re-establishing the kind of reading program in use several years before because that program seemed to be more satisfactory to some parents. Confronted by opposition from the remaining nine teachers, the principal exerted his authority and indicated that his proposal was an order.

Recently a teacher confessed that she was frightened. When probed concerning the basis of her feeling, she revealed that what was going on in her classroom was foreign to what she knew to be good education for children and that she no longer could live with herself because of guilt feelings caused by the ways she was dealing with children who simply could not meet the required standards. Further exploration brought to light that a memorandum from the central office had admonished all teachers to "fail" children who were unable to meet standards which were spelled out in detail for every grade level. "I can't understand it," she said. "Never before have we had such dictation. Problems have always been discussed with us, and we have had a chance to work on them and arrive at reasonable solutions that we could all understand and do something about. This time, all we saw was the printed memorandum from the central office."

Cases of deliberate, cynical retreat to methods of authoritarianism are far too numerous at present. As history has repeatedly shown, meeting group or individual pressures with appeasement tactics inevitably creates more problems in all phases of life and work.

Retreat by Default Is Unacceptable

This ready retreat on the part of some educational workers is a rather clear indication that, in the first place, these leaders lacked fundamental conviction and adequate insight and skill for maintaining the democracy in educational administration, supervision and teaching that was so bravely and confidently envisioned and ventured upon a generation ago. In stormy weather it is easy to abandon the leadership practices which in fair weather days were adopted primarily to give the appearance of being up to date.

The benevolent and pseudo-democratic practices adopted by some leaders lacked a firm basis and, therefore, could not stand up under hostile pressure. Often these practices were accepted by leaders, not because of any deep understanding of democratic principles in relation to working with people in teaching-learning situations, but because these proved to be popular with school staff, children and parents. Lacking real commitment to the value of group intelligence, the principle of involvement and the fundamental rights of individuals, the leaders who previously assumed a cloak of democracy under pressures have found it easy to divest themselves of this garment under current pressures of a different order.

More important, however, than the retreat by the few educational leaders who lacked a fundamental commitment to democratic principles in education is the withdrawal of democratic effort on the part of those who now find the democratic process just too difficult to manage. When decisions to be made are simple, when factors affecting them are clear-cut, when people involved are in general agreement, and when alternatives are few, it is relatively easy to employ a democratic process. These are not the conditions in which educational leaders find themselves today, for the decisions to be made reside at the very core of principles underlying American public education. Factors affecting such decisions range from anxieties about ideological conflict and human survival to detailed, incomprehensible human motivation; wider groups of people representing distinctly opposing positions are involved; and proposals for solutions are manifold. These conditions tax the insights and skills of all who would attempt leadership. Such taxation is the heavier for educators who are aware of emerging findings in the study of human behavior and implications of these findings in respect to the increased skill needed by those who would play leadership roles.

Forward Movement to Higher Levels of Democratic Leadership Is Needed

Educational leaders who are serious students of our society cannot help being dissatisfied with the quality of their own leadership as they realize wherein it is lacking. They also recognize the urgent need for improvement of the directions in which they are leading schools and colleges. They realize that no amount of longing or pretending will restore the relatively stable, slow-to-change status of societies predating the industrial revolution. Complexity, speed of change, bigness and urbanization are not likely to cease unless the world itself ends with a suddenness and in a manner no one would choose.

The world is about to witness even fuller development in technology and still more rapid changes. The differential between technology and human ability to work out adjustments will become all the more acute; it is safe to predict that institutions and problems will become more and more intricate. The alert educator is aware of what this will mean for human beings who are already finding it difficult to combat feelings of insignificance and insecurity. Man is an amazingly versatile and persistent problem solver, but the rapid multiplication of enormously complex problems calls for all possible help from organized education.

Leadership is challenged to determine what forms this help should take and how to make necessary changes in educational institutions. There is need for proposals based on careful, considered judgments to counter ill-advised suggestions made by people who, as Socrates observed, do not know that they do not know.

A Time of Fateful Decision

The big question facing American education today is, which of these forces is to win? Will leadership be forced backward toward authoritarian forms, or will it take stock of both the dangers and the opportunities in the current situation and move forward to new and better levels of operation? We hope that the tide toward cynically expedient measures can be stemmed.

At this time, when decisions made will direct our whole public education system toward realization of the democratic ideal or away from it, courage and determination must characterize the actions of educational leadership.

Persistent Problems of Relationships

Leadership in every phase of American life has been the subject of persistent exploration—from the great novels centered on the lives of political or social leaders to the morning headlines claiming that American leadership is challenged by Soviet success in rockets; from the reports of study of litters of dogs and the "born leader" among them to industrialists' analyses of predictive factors that can be employed in identification of "leader" personalities; from the leadership training center sponsored by a large automotive corporation to the controversy over the place of leadership development in the elementary school curriculum; from condemnation of the weaknesses of people blindly following the dictates of a fascist leader to expositions regarding America's leadership role in a troubled world. The abundance of comment on leadership attests the importance attached to its nature and function in our society.

Clearly, however, there exists a wide range of opinion on what leadership is, when it may be judged effective, and what makes it so. Such differences of opinion are not solely the product of contemporary times; they stem from trials of civilizations through time and space to deal effectively with certain fundamental and persisting problems. Two of these problems have special significance in re-examination of present concepts of leadership: (a) relationship of the individual to society, and (b) relationship of freedom and authority.

Early Civilizations Sought To Resolve Problems of Relationships

To learn the appropriate relationship of the individual to society has been one of the chief quests of human beings since the beginning of civilization. Life in the ancient autocratic states had little value to the despotic rulers. Yet, even when whole nations were reduced to slavery, men persisted in expressing their sense of fundamental human dignity. The Hebrews of ancient time believed in a just God who wanted "judgment to run down as water, and righteousness as a mighty stream," and in the coming of a Messiah who would bring equality and freedom upon the earth.

Aside from the Hebrews, the most successful attempts in the ancient world to establish a relationship between the individual and his society in which the worth and intelligence of man were recognized was the democratic rule and leadership which Athens and Rome enjoyed for a period of time. Even in Athens, however, individual freedom was limited, for the free men were greatly outnumbered by the slaves. At its height in the fourth and fifth centuries B.C., Athenian democracy and political philosophy, as expounded by Aristotle and Plato, still subordinated the individual to the state. By endowing its citizenry with a wide degree of ultimate control, however, Athens did make a tremendous contribution to man's quest for democratic leadership. In addition, the Greeks also constructed a philosophy that was based upon the dignity of the individual. This philosophy, stoicism, made self-realization the main objective of human endeavor and, in its assumption that "man is the measure of all things," postulated that all authority in human affairs resides in man himself.

The Roman state approached political democracy under the republic but, even then, when power was popularly exercised, there was little concept of individual rights or civil liberty. Rome's great contribution was the establishment of law and order, rather than freedom and its reconciliation with authority.

In general, as far as the Middle Ages are concerned, a basic trend may be observed. Owing to the influence of the Judaeo-Christian tradition of divine revelation, there developed a tendency toward a theocratic culture, according to which all authority and leadership were conceived as derived from God, the author and originator of man and nature. The Bible, as the revealed word of God, was to serve as the authoritative source for the regulation of human affairs. In Christian societies the church was the interpreter of divine revelation and its authority was, therefore, recognized as supreme. The doctrine of the divine right of kings as leaders was a product of theological thought and was based on the assumption that the authority of the king derived from the authority of God, the authority of all things. In other words, leadership in that period was thought to be of divine origin.

Medieval metaphysics dominated European thought until new scientific methods, discoveries and economic thought undercut it. With the commercial revolution and the unsettling effects of the Renaissance and the Reformation, a new temper gradually came into being. Men thought the Golden Age had arrived, not in a primitive past or murky future, but here on earth and now. In fact, the quest for America was the quest at once for gold and for the Golden Age. In America the foundation was laid for the metaphysics of secular promise.

Search for Freedom and Individualism Characterized Early American History

The people who came to the American shores felt intensely about the American experience because for many of them America was a wall broken down, a door thrown open. Many of them, whether they came for land or economic opportunity or freedom, came because of the past denials in their lives. It was their pre-American experience that gave point to their lives in America. There is perhaps no other nation in whose life-history promise has played so great a part or in whose life promise has meant so much.

The liberal thought of the eighteenth century accompanied individualism. Emphasis upon freedom from authority in religion, politics and economics and a great faith in progress were the by-products of liberalism. But as society became increasingly complicated, it was found that individual liberty and property rights sometimes tended to get in the way of needed conditions for positive leadership. People required health, education, and some measure of security as well as art, beauty and leisure. All of these involved leadership dedicated to the interests of the people at large, and new questions were posed concerning how freedom and authority could be reconciled.

Modern Ideologies Center Attention on These Relationships

The world had to acquire experience with authority and with freedom before the subtle interrelationships between these two concepts could be highlighted as the crucial problem in viewing the individual in relation to society. The modern ideologies of fascism, communism, and democracy all have as a central and distinguishing theme their own special way of looking at the individual in a society.

Fascism is defeated but smoldering—In a sense, fascism is a complex of authoritarianism, directionalism, militarism, nationalism, and the leadership principle, with racism usually added. The most novel element in fascism is its theory of leadership. The leader is assumed to have reliable intuitions, not achieved by reason and not validated by discussion and evidence. The result is the monolithic totalitarian state in which values of the leader are dominant.

Marxist political theory and practice are based on an ideology of power—Instead of power in the service of ideals, this theory sees ideals in the service of power. Underlying this ideology of power is the assumption that moral values always serve the special interests or will to power of some dominant economic group or of some subservient group in quest of power. The concept of a common good in which all members of a given state or group may participate is dismissed as a delusion of metaphysical idealists.

According to the Marxists, every ideology is a function of economic conditions and every cultural system is integrated and produces historically determined institutions. Thus, contrary to the "delusions" of the liberals and the democrats that a given culture may comprise a plurality of partially autonomous cultural interests, the Marxists maintain that every cultural system constitutes an integrated cultural whole dominated by economic motives and institutions. Thus every ideology is but a reflection and rationalization of the dominant economic institutions prevalent at the time and of the class whose interests they promote.

The belief of contemporary Marxists, following in the general tradition of Marx and Engels, that every culture is an integrated whole and that its ideology is a function of its economic institutions, has led in practice to systematic efforts to make the culture conform to their theory of economic and materialistic determinism. Thus, the new totalitarian communist states have embarked upon a program of cultural integration which embraces every aspect of the life of the individual. In conformity with their theory of the state as an instrument of coercion, the Marxist leaders utilize all of the state's powers to bring about complete cultural conformity and compliance. In this way a vicious cyclical process is set up in which a totalitarian theory of culture breeds a totalitarian government and a totalitarian leadership which, in turn, is an expression of rigid political, cultural and economic dictatorship.

Democracy emphasizes freedom and responsibility—Whereas both fascism and communism as ideologies tend to place emphasis on authority and power, democracy emphasizes freedom and responsibility. Whatever power or authority a leader in democracy may possess is his by virtue of the fact that he is trying to help his fellow men discover wherein lies the greatest good. Underlying democratic theory is the assumption that people, through education, can be sufficiently informed and intelligent to decide their own destiny and to fulfill their responsibilities to the society which nourishes them. This implies that when an individual has confronted a problem, he will be intelligent enough to seek out the available data, to sort and sift that which is pertinent, and to use his wisdom in formulating rational and socially responsible judgments. If an individual is to function intelligently, it is necessary that he be free and be aware of that freedom, so that he can choose wisely among the alternatives of any given situation.

Democracy requires that its leaders have faith in the ability of individuals to utilize their intelligence, and have respect for the right of the individual to exercise and formulate his own judgments. At the same time, however, it is essential that all recognize that each individual is not an island unto himself, separate and distinct, unrelated and isolated from all others. The right to guide one's own destiny toward the fullest degree of self-realization in a society characterized by interdependence demands cooperative recognition of responsibilities and problems, planning for their solutions, and implementation of agreed-upon methods and goals.

Clarifying These Relationships—A Task Confronting Today's Educational Leaders

At least in theory, democracy has established respect for man's individuality and for single and collective intelligence as the basis for determining both the goals and the means for achieving goals. In democratic theory, leadership in and out of education is committed to the proposition that men should be free to determine their own destinies. But this commitment is being shaken by the complexity of problems to be considered, the rapidity with which solutions must be found, and the size of the population concerned with any given problem. So it is that in our time and our social order, we are still engaged in the quest for desirable relationships between individuals and groups, freedom and authority.

Signs of maturity in educational leadership, of growing up to the ways of democracy, may be observed in the shift from easy generalizations about decision making, the role of leaders, respect for individuals and cooperative procedures to more specific and searching questions such as these: Should all decisions be made by involvement of all those affected by them? Are there any decisions that may be appropriately made by officially designated leaders? What is the nature of involvement? Should it be the same for all people with regard to all decisions? Wherein does authority for decisions reside? Is it the same for all situations? Do individuals and groups always make wise decisions? When may a leader suggest, recommend or even impose? In other words, having fairly well-established practices based upon a principle of freedom and responsibility, institutions within our democracy must now give attention to the problem of authority. Only when freedom and authority are drawn into a relationship that is consistent with the most valuable insights concerning democratic values can leadership in any societal institution, including the school, be on the road to maturity. Clarifying this relationship and its meaning in practice is one of the continuing tasks confronting educational leaders.

Assumptions basic to Examination of Leadership

The many ways in which man has expressed his striving for desirable relationships between the individual and group and between freedom and authority may be best understood if they are viewed in terms of the following well-attested hypotheses: (a) every civilization is a totality with its own predominating values, and all leadership within a society is governed by what is valued by that society; (b) leadership is situationally centered; and (c) democracy is always capable of improvement.

An Institution Must Be Viewed in the Framework of the Whole Society

From anthropologists we learn that every people, no matter how primitive, has an organic culture—literature, even if only a body of folklore; science, even if only a system of magic; religion, even if only a set of social customs and sanctions. By observing the results of the contact of "higher" and "lower" cultures, our generation has learned what happens when a primitive people are "helped" or "uplifted" by one of the more civilized peoples. The effect of such culture conflicts on the American Indians or on the Samoan Islanders is well documented in our present-day sociological and anthropological researches. But its full meaning was not clear until the French sociologist Durkheim developed the concept of "anomie," the state of collapse of traditional norms and values in a culture. What emerged from his work—and later from that of Ruth Benedict and Margaret Mead—is the key idea that cultures are organic patterns to be treated as living wholes. Institutions or ideas cannot be lifted out of their context to be displaced or replaced without seriously affecting other institutions or ideas within the culture, and each must be set in the perspective of the whole culture before its particular meaning can be fully understood. Recent "cross-cultural" studies have sought to find common denominators between cultures, but the truth is that each culture, whether primitive or modern, is a complete entity in itself.

Evidence is also available from the field of psychology, in which theorists argue heatedly about the relative merits of the "psychological" versus the "cultural" approaches. But the search for the roots of personality disturbances was bound to lead beyond the individual life history to the society as a whole. Students and practitioners alike found that it is impossible to understand the total person without seeing him in his culture and without relating his unique needs and psychological burdens to the common life and purposes within his society.

Historians, too, especially philosophers of history, have provided insights through their study of entire civilizations, with their rhythms of growth and decline. Arnold Toynbee, for example, studied "societies" or "civilizations" as wholes. One of his predecessors, Oswald Spengler, had seen the Egyptian, Greek, Chinese and Western societies in semibiological terms, tracing their rise and fall as one might trace the life history of plants. Both of these men have at least one truth—the cultures men live in are not filing cases or collections of bits and pieces but organic wholes to be studied as such in the fluctuations of their energies and fortunes; in their actions and passions; in their norms, institutions, strivings, failures and achievements.

Some of the deeply disturbing conflicts centering around goals and methods of education in contemporary America grow out of failure to use wide-angle lenses in viewing the school as a social institution. Even in those instances where the "community school concept" has received acceptance in theory and practice, there sometimes exists a tendency to think of "community" as a local school district only, rather than as a small area with geographical boundaries set in a total society that is part of a world. Various dimensions of our complex and changing society have been the subject of many analyses, all of which result in the conclusion that our society is extremely complex and is changing at a rate almost beyond calculation. Unless those who assume educational leadership are aware of what is going on in areas other than organized education, unless they are ready, willing and able to modify their present concepts in terms of new developments, they are performing dangerously below par.

Leadership Is Situationally Centered

Leadership in a democracy is situationally centered. Outside the context of a particular situation a given mode of leadership cannot operate successfully, and what is called leadership in one situation may not be so considered in another. The man recognized as a leader under certain conditions is often not ascribed leadership qualities under different conditions. To be viewed as a leader by some people does not mean that all people have the same view.

The idea that leadership is situationally centered is not new or startling. It is now common practice to talk of leadership in relation to the specifics of time, place, people and purpose which make up the contextual framework of a situation. When the "gang" leader is mentioned, one is likely to call to mind a group of young adolescents on a street corner, each viewing one member as the leader of the group because he is big and tough and knows the ropes. Similarly, when an obituary states that Mr. Jones was a great community leader there is conjured up a whole picture of a man who chaired the community chest drive, sponsored the boys club, gave generously to the hospital drive, was courageously outspoken about apathy in local government. Likewise, when scholars in the humanities are discussed and one is singled out as having provided real leadership, it is probably meant that he has extended ideas in that particular area of knowledge beyond the limits previously known.

In education, too, it is recognized that leadership is situationally centered. The small curriculum committee working on a task soon ascribes leadership to one of its members, chiefly because of his particular operations in the group. He may or may not be viewed as a leader by the staff in the school where he works. When dealing with problems of school-community relationships, a principal may exercise what is recognized as leadership. When he works with a group of teachers on evaluation of a reading program, however, both he and the teachers look to the second grade teacher as the leader. A school superintendent may be seen as a leader by school board members as they struggle with problems of adequately financing the school system. At the same time his professional associates may regret his lack of leadership with regard to instructional problems.

Although theory and practice related to analysis of leadership make explicit the principle that leadership is situationally centered, there appears to be a somewhat narrow definition of the "situation" in which it is centered. The truth is that concepts of leaders and leadership are contingent upon far more than the particular factors of a given situation. Larger than any single situation, yet part of each one, are the dominant values of a people that make explicit what a leader shall be and how he shall behave.

The very questions asked about leadership arise not only out of the unique situation in a school, a college, a club, a political party or a professional organization. Fundamentally the questions asked, the decisions arrived at and the way decisions are made result from acceptance of, or failure to accept, democratic values. Currently there is a pressing need for all school personnel to pay more attention to the larger situation—the context of democracy—as the primary basis for decision making.

Democracy Is Always Capable of Improvement

Democracy is similar to a huge canvas in process of being created. The artist, with a clear conception of what it is he is trying to communicate, develops an image of the medium and content that will relate his idea to others. He then proceeds to use his skills and abilities in creating his image on canvas. As he progresses from one step to the next, he moves off and views his work from a distance, appraising it against the image he holds in his mind. Having evaluated his work, he corrects errors, redesigns his process, perhaps even modifies his original image and continues with his creation.

America is trying to communicate to its citizens and to the world an image of democracy. America must also step back and appraise its handiwork in order to examine what is happening to the image and whether its idea of democracy is being communicated. Some Americans have greater responsibility than others for the kind of image of democracy that America presents, for the effectiveness with which the democratic idea is communicated and for the continuous appraisal of American democracy. Among those with primary obligation are educators, to whom society grants opportunity to guide its children and youth for a substantial portion of their lives. As a whole profession, school people are responsible for leadership in the constant redefinition and reformulation of democratic values. As individuals, each is held accountable for consistency between his behavior and those values.

The ways of democracy are always capable of improvement. Because America is quite young, we are only now beginning to comprehend all that this ideal might imply for the everyday lives of men. Furthermore, the concept of democracy is not a fixed ideal; it responds to new insights arising from new experiences with the democratic way of life. Practice based on a deepening understanding of democracy affects people by helping them want more of it. As elsewhere in our lives, the more we know, the more we realize how meager our knowledge is, and how much more we need to know. As we obtain a clearer understanding of what our ideal could mean in practice, we become increasingly dissatisfied with our present levels of behavior. Democracy has built into its framework the need for constant re-examination, so that any time is a time for reassessment of our progress toward implementing our ideal. Educational leadership has special responsibility in this task of reassessment.

The three assumptions seen here as suggestive of a need for re-examination of educational leadership are intricately related to one another. Democracy is unfinished business in all phases of our society. We have only recently begun to recognize both the pitfalls and the opportunities inherent in our present level of understanding of democratic theory and practice. Educational leaders are uniquely obligated to continue the search for a clearer image of our values and their meaning in the lives of men. In so doing, a quest for educational leadership must include observation and study of all facets of life in America and the relation of our society to the world. Moreover, the fundamental values of democracy must be viewed as the dominant factor in any situation where educational leadership functions.

New Findings That Should Be Integrated into Our Concept of Leadership

In every phase of our lives, organized bodies of knowledge are expanding at a pace that prohibits any single individual's being well informed in all areas. The task of integrating contributions from related fields of knowledge into a concept of leadership and leadership functions is very great. Naturally, educational leadership must depend upon scholars in different fields of specialization for their findings. However, it remains for the educator, as a scholar in his own field, not only to interpret this accumulated knowledge in terms of its implications for his own work, but also to make his own contribution to that body of knowledge called education.

To review from all fields of knowledge those recent, important findings that have a direct bearing on educational leadership would be presumptuous in this setting. The task of integrating findings in other fields into concepts of leadership is an interminable one. Actually, the degree to which new data in other fields have already been utilized by educators is commendable. Particularly significant to all leadership personnel, whether in government, business, industry or education, are contemporary findings about what motivates human beings and how people appear to go about seeking satisfactions from their lives and work. For some time educators at all levels, in carrying out their various functions, have tried to apply principles related to the role of purpose in learning, the nature of differences among individuals, the concept of self-understanding and acceptance, and other important contributions from the study of human beings. Without any attempt to include all of the very significant data emerging from current study in the area of human motivations, some ideas are presented in the next few pages to illustrate the kinds of insights that now need to be integrated into our total concept of leadership.

Men Seek a Cause for Which To Live

Our Western culture has made self-interest and the fight for ego-centered success dominant in life. Out of this fight for self-interest came the willingness of millions of people to raise their arms in common salute and follow the commands of their leaders. Why? Men, so social psychologists believe, answered the call of what seemed to them to be a nobler devotion than they hitherto had known to something greater than themselves. It is too easy to say that these people were deluded, that the call in fascism was to a new selfishness of military arrogance and bestial cruelty; and in communism to a fanatic intolerance and an unspeakable brutality that enslaved even while promising freedom. Yet one reason for the delusion is plain—human beings must find a cause to live for, a cause greater than themselves.

As we have studied man in depth, we have come, in recent years, to realize that no individual is genuinely and lastingly happy unless he has something beyond himself to care about and work for. We saw among the German people the emerging lineaments of what we are learning to call "the authoritarian personality." And among Russian people, although obscured by what seemed to be a revolutionary movement on behalf of economic and social freedom, the same authoritarian concept emerged. Today the domination-submission pattern is so clear at some periods and places that no fair-minded person can mistake it.

Desire for Success Often Leads to Conformity

Our effort to comprehend these curious phenomena has made us less psychologically naive about ourselves. How can a people prefer submission to freedom? authoritarianism to democratic leadership? Erich Fromm, in his book, *Escape from Freedom*, shows that where the individual feels isolated and anxious, he tends to adopt "the kind of personality offered to him by cultural patterns and he therefore becomes exactly as all the others are and as they expect him to be."[1] He conforms and he gains his sense of security from the very shackles of conformity. Freedom through submission may seem to be a contradiction, but a "person who gives up his individual self and becomes an automaton, identical with millions of other automatons around him, need not feel alone and anxious any more."[2] He has joined the crowd. Thereafter he is not only willing to take orders from those who lead the crowd, he glories in taking orders, for to be ordered to do things means that he, the insignificant one, has been noticed. He has been accepted. He can march abreast, his heels clicking in unison with the heels of his fellows.

In this idea of freedom through conformity there are very real dangers for people with leadership responsibilities. In addition, new light is thrown on old problems by the realization that there appears to be truth in the proposition that certain aspects of our society drive men away from a desire for honest freedom. In discussions of curriculum development, leaders are often heard to say that people with whom they work do not want to participate in making decisions. School principals sometimes comment that teachers do not use freedom when it is available, that they would rather be told what to do and how to do it.

It would seem that gaining an understanding of pressures for conformity and of why human beings tend to find satisfaction in getting into step with others is absolutely fundamental to the work of those who play leadership roles. Perhaps one of the very significant tasks waiting to be accomplished is that of providing experiences through which all might gain new insight about what makes us want to conform, wherein conformity is desirable, and at what points conformity becomes a surrender of the precious heritage of freedom.

Being Alone or Different Is Not Easy

Directly related to pressures for conformity is the problem of "being alone," which has deep implications for every individual in our society. As the child grows and develops within the family group, he must find ways and means of living up to the expectations of his parents and friends. By living up to what is demanded of him, he conforms to their rules. He learns how to be a "good boy" and how to avoid being a "bad boy"; in effect, this often means doing what he is told; or, to use a phrase from Ruth Benedict, "being submissive." His reward is a sense of relatedness and the comfortable feeling of dependence. The child re-establishes through conformity the primary ties which bound him to his mother before he was born. But the price that he often pays is loss of his individuality, and, as he is developing, he can see clearly that this is not the way in which he wants to grow up. Linton would say he tries to prepare himself for the "role" he is going to play in later years. So, on the one hand, he rebels against domination, against authority (parental and otherwise) and makes his own decisions. In order to confirm his individuality he tends to do at times just the opposite of what "they" want. On the other hand, he soon finds out that being alone is frightening. Man is socially conditioned and, when he feels too much burdened by the weight of making decisions, he tends to shrink back, looking for some support in authority figures or ideas, totalitarianism or conformity.

---

[1] Erich Fromm. *Escape from Freedom.* New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1941. p. 185-86. Copyright 1941 by Erich Fromm. Reprinted by permission of Rinehart & Company, Inc. Publishers.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 186.

To be alone in the sense of being out in front, trying new ideas, experimenting with novel ways of doing things, talking about hunches that are only in the process of formulation is not easy for most people. And, yet, if teachers, principals, supervisors, curriculum workers and other educational leaders are not, at least in some phases of their operations, out in front testing ideas, discovering new relationships and exploring the unknown, how can new practical or theoretical knowledge in education emerge?

If every individual is not exerting his creative powers in his [illegible] and work, with the dangers and rewards that accompany creative activity, how then will self-realization be possible? Here, again, it would seem that educational leadership is responsible for discovering ways to help people feel secure and accepted in their being different, in their individual searchings for ideas and ways of behaving, in their efforts to fulfill their potentialities.

Feelings Are Important

In our Western culture a tendency has developed which looks down on sentiments as inferior, as something of which to be ashamed. Yet, sentiments are important. True, people are not born with them, but they cannot do away with them. Sentiments are, just like feelings of aloneness, socially determined, and we should capitalize on constructive utilization of them. However, guided by the assumption that he who knows how to think will know how to live, philosophy since the time of Socrates has been primarily a quest for right thinking. Philosophers concentrated their attention on the problem of cognition, becoming less and less aware of the problem of living.

Thinking about problems of living and conduct is not a particular skill but rather an act of the total personality and is affected by the personal climate in which man exists. Modern man has made tremendous strides and progress in material civilization, but he has not made corresponding growth in his social and spiritual life because he set his thinking free but his emotions remained in the shackles.

People have feelings—feelings that influence thinking and action in most situations. To attempt to provide leadership without taking account of this fact is to be blind to reality. True, there is an appropriate balance to be achieved between the relative weight of emotion and reason in making decisions and acting on them. A proper balance is not achieved through denial of feelings, with the subtle assumption that feelings should be, but cannot be, entirely eradicated from planning and carrying on the school program. Honest recognition of emotions and their relation to the intellectual process is required, and leaders have a long way to go in encouraging positive use for their co-workers' feelings.

Summary

In the mid-twentieth century, conditions surrounding those who carry responsibilities for instructional leadership in American education are characterized by some degree of confusion and conflict. Now it is more difficult to be crystal clear about the purposes of schools and the ways in which leadership should function both to accomplish them and to withstand persuasion from commitment to the basic purposes.

In this chapter we have examined the need for educational leaders to respond with conviction and action to these present day challenges. The long history of the search for the appropriate relationship between the individual and the society gives us confidence in the future of democracy. Democracy can make use of new insights, and educational leaders have special responsibilities for the continuous reassessment of our progress toward the implementation of our ideals.

Some of the insights now available which should be integrated into our total concept of leadership are man's need for a cause greater than himself, the individual's need for security which is sometimes gained through the shackles of conformity, the need for security and acceptance as one dares to be different in order to fulfill his potentialities, and the importance of the positive use of feelings and emotions in thinking and acting. Ideas such as these give clues to the direction which we must take in our forward movement to higher levels of democratic leadership.

The times require a re-examination of our democratic values in the light of new knowledge and the meaning of these values for instructional leadership in the school program. Chapter Two, which discusses these tasks and problems, presents a concept of educational leadership that is based on research and that is appropriate for a democracy which is ever in the state of becoming what the people make it.

CHAPTER TWO

A CONCEPT OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

TODAY, freedom loving people everywhere are looking to democratic nations to demonstrate what leadership means and how it operates among people who hold as sacred rights freedom to think and to determine their own destiny. The basic assumptions upon which the theory of democratic leadership is built are highly appealing to thinking people. But does the theory work? Does it raise the level of responsible action, or is it destined to result in mediocrity? If the latter alternative is perceived as being true, then democracy has little claim to leadership.

It is because of our faith in the people's capability for responsible action of a high level that we in democratic nations accept the challenge of leadership. In so doing, we recognize that the world's questions need to be answered not merely by words but by deeds. The democratic concept of leadership must prove its worth in terms of a course of action in which:

1. Individual and group freedom of thought results in responsible action.

2. People with conflicting values and beliefs can resolve their differences.

3. People's motivations, feelings and sentiments undergird, rather than undermine, their disposition to apply intelligence to the resolution of issues and the solution of their problems.

4. Groups with special interests (sometimes called "pressure groups") establish a proper balance between their concerns and those of the larger community of which these groups are vital parts.

5. People make effective use of intelligence in solving problems.

6. People organize not only to make effective use of their own resources but also to reach out beyond these resources to exercise their imagination, initiative and creativity in defining and solving their problems.

Chapter One traced the development of relationships between the individual and society which led to a theory of democratic leadership. This chapter deals with the nature of the leadership problem as it specifically applies to the American public schools. The concept to be developed here rests upon the basic assumptions previously explained. It rests especially upon the premise that democracy is ever in the state of becoming what the people make it. Its corollary is: If democracies actually exhibit the six kinds of action described above, their schools must become living demonstrations not only of how to develop the potential of each individual and provide him freedom to think, but also of how individuals and groups thus educated become increasingly capable of applying intelligence and freedom of thought in solving the problems of society.

America has already come a long way in this direction. What the public school is or may become is decided by the people. Through the action of local boards of education, the laws enacted by the state legislature, the policies and regulations of state departments of education, the participation of the federal government and, more directly, through the insight and understanding of the professional staff they employ, the people formally indicate the nature of the school system they desire and the extent to which they will support it. Through the action of their local advisory committees, their reaction to bond issues and operating levies, the prestige which they ascribe to their professional staff, and the vigor of their moral support, the people reveal further the value which they place upon their schools.

Much of the strength of American education today may be attributed to the triumph of the public schools over the many crises through which they have come. Free public schools, compulsory school attendance, the extension of the tax-supported system to include high schools and universities, the separation of church and state functions, desegregation, school district organization, the nature of the educational program—all of these and many more decisions have been made and are being made by people as they examine their values and commitments.

When critical decisions are made there is much debate, many shifts in the balance of power, considerable resolution of differences in understanding and, of course, variations from one locality to another in the level of support for the decisions that are made. Nevertheless, decisions are made, and our public schools are in large measure what they are today because of these decisions.

A Concept of Leadership

Whatever the decision, whatever the action that has been taken or is to be taken by groups, leadership is manifested in education as in any other enterprise. As a basis for understanding this book, the authors have defined educational leadership as *that action or behavior among individuals and groups which causes both the individual and the groups to move toward educational goals that are increasingly mutually acceptable to them.*

As in other democratically oriented groups, leadership action may be either of brief duration or sustained. It may receive its impetus from the behavior of someone who has been assigned the responsibility for improving group action, or it may result from the voluntary action of any one or more of the group members. Actually, the impetus for action may be derived from a source external to the group. In any case, the leadership action about which we are speaking is goal centered, value oriented, communicative, catalytic, energizing, initiatory and/or creative; the leader is understanding, perceptive, communicative and accepted; what he does or what happens within groups identifies, clarifies, strengthens, supports, suggests new alternatives, alters relationships and arrangements, provides new structure or means of operation, creates new understandings, motivates, provides new perspective and conceptualization.

But leadership action is more than words can describe—it is a quality of interaction which takes on added meaning for people as they live it and study its significance. Here the authors discuss those aspects of leadership which need clarification if the schools are truly to become workshops in which democracy is built. The major emphasis in this discussion will be upon certain "educational leadership tasks"—imperative accomplishments—that devolve upon a democratic people because of their freedom and the obligation for responsible action that results from this freedom. Next, attention will be directed toward certain difficulties experienced in achieving these tasks, the emergence of new theory that is helping school people overcome these difficulties, new designs for organization and structure in school situations, and finally some of the problem areas in which there is critical need for further study and exploration.

Educational Leadership Tasks

The ultimate objectives of education make a difference in the nature of leadership action required. In those nations where the end to be achieved is to mold people into a pre-established societal pattern, the function of leadership is either to convince the people that this objective is consistent with their values or to build up a bureaucracy of strength and power necessary to force it upon the people with utter disregard for these values. In either case, people acquiesce in face of bureaucratic control.

In America the people, through organized ways of exercising their intelligence, decide upon the nature of the educational program. It is the obligation of the people, therefore, to understand the alternatives available to them and to accept the consequences of the choices which they make. Decisions are made at many levels of our society and through a variety and number of media. The state—through its legislature, taxing divisions, department of education and courts—has exercised great influence upon the developing pattern of education in our country. Federal participation and influence are manifested in legislative enactments, Supreme Court decisions, the long history of partial financial aid and the growing leadership of the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Mass communication media provide the opportunity for professional and lay leaders and agencies, whether responsible or irresponsible, to speak for themselves and for others. But, the degree to which the schools in all of the communities throughout our nation reach their potential in influence and performance is dependent, in large measure, upon the decisions made in those communities and the support which the people of those communities give to their decisions. Although decision making at the state and national level is important and not to be ignored, we are concerned here with the intelligence that operates in each local school district and the means by which leadership enhances that operation.

It is imperative that leadership activity be exercised in such ways as these:

1. To help the people of the school community define their educational goals and objectives
2. To facilitate the teaching-learning process—develop greater effectiveness in teaching
3. To build a productive organizational unit
4. To create a climate for growth and for the emergence of leadership
5. To provide adequate resources for effective teaching.

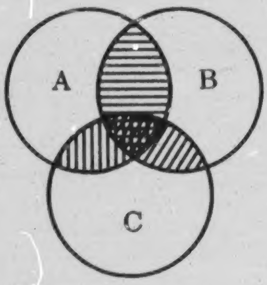
In a very real sense, these tasks are propositions for testing the effectiveness of leadership and may be stated in terms of an *if-then* relationship: If leadership in the school is effective, then (a) people will be getting appropriate assistance in defining educational goals and objectives; (b) greater effectiveness in teaching will result; (c) people will recognize themselves as responsible contributors to a productive organization; (d) the climate in which people work will be conducive to their own growth; and (e) increases will be made in the wealth of resources brought to teaching-learning situations.

If leadership really works, modifications in the program, in the quality of classroom teaching and in the character of the school as an institution will be made in terms of systematic examination and appraisal. Our concerns now are: What is the nature of each of these tasks? Where does the major responsibility for each of them lie? What kind of action can be taken to achieve them?

Task I. To Help the People of the School Community Define Their Educational Goals and Objectives

The schools, like other democratic institutions, can live and develop only when there is a high degree of mutuality in the goals and objectives of the groups upon which they depend for support. Members of the institution itself, who make up the organization seeking to achieve the institutional goals, and persons external to the institution, but clients and constituents of it, must be working toward common ends.

Major reference groups—The diagram on the next page illustrates a degree of relationship among three groups who play important roles in making decisions about an institution. Circles A, B and C are intended to show the positions taken by three (may often be more) groups that have an interest in a common cause. The area marked by the horizontal lines indicates the amount of mutuality in the posi-



tions of groups A and B. Similarly the overlapping areas of circles A and C (marked by vertical lines) and the common portions of the areas of circles B and C (marked by the slanted lines) serve to illustrate areas of agreement among the groups involved. The cross-hatching shows an area common to all three circles (groups). Let us assume that circle A represents the position taken by the professional staff of the schools; circle B, the position taken by the local board of education; and circle C, a position taken by the citizens generally. Assume, also, that these several circles are not completely fixed but are somewhat flexible and that they may change in size, location, speed and direction of movement. From an imaginary manipulation in the arrangement of these circles it is easy to see that the relative positions of the groups they represent may be altered in a number of ways. One simple change could be by the movement of all circles toward a common center, thus enlarging the area common to all of them. Movement of the circles away from a common center reduces the extent of overlapping (mutuality of position). Other alterations suggest still different relationships among the groups represented.

While there is leadership within each group that may tend to influence its movement in one direction or another, there are outside forces and influences which affect it also. Complete harmony among the major reference groups for any institution probably does not exist. Current forces—cultural, social, political—play upon the members of various groups disturbing the balance or equilibrium among them, thus keeping the situation fluid and dynamic rather than static. This is not to say, however, that such forces tend to stabilize the direction in which an institution will move. Rather, institutions which depend for their direction merely upon the influences of their major reference groups and the external forces which act upon them behave like ships without rudders.

The superintendent is the official leader—Major groups that participate in making decisions for the schools have, for many years, recognized a need for an officially designated leader. This is the superintendent of schools. To be a leader, he must be able to recognize and understand the positions taken by these key groups, know wherein they agree or disagree and so work with them that harmony in thinking results, a common direction for the educational enterprise is established and cooperative effort is directed to the achievement of mutually accepted goals. This course is not an easy one to run. The job is never done. Its challenge lies in its call for leadership. Suffice it to say that if the efforts of the superintendent and his staff in working with the schools' major reference groups fail to result in common understanding and cooperation, they are often perceived by these groups as having failed in their leadership role.

Kinds of action needed—To help the people of the school-community define their educational goals and objectives, the superintendent of schools, with the aid of the total professional staff of the schools and the leadership in major community groups, should:

1. Seek clarification of values held for education.

Much of what we read about the schools today suggests that there is great variation in the values which people hold for education. Should the primary objective of education be to develop the whole child in terms of his capabilities *or* are the demands of our society such that we do not have time (or cannot afford) to do the whole job because of the urgency for the development of special talents and skills necessary to our survival? About this we are confused, and this confusion permits people to be influenced by forces and pressures emanating from many sources. Sometimes the balance of these forces holds us in a stalemate. At other times the decisions that are made in favor of one alternative or the other are not completely understood.

In our educational literature and in much that we say about democracy and its meaning, our devotion to the integrity and worth of the individual has been repeatedly avowed. What this means in operational terms for the school—programs developed, methods of instruction and the horizontal and vertical extension of educational opportunity—is not always clear without the professional assistance of an educator who has made an intensive study of the problem. Other values have equally potent implications, although no attempt will be made here to list all of them. The preceding illustration reveals the importance of clarifying the meaning of the concepts, beliefs and values which people hold and the implications of these values for the schools.

2. Seek a rational basis for agreement on operational goals and the means for achieving them.

As values are clarified, the goals to be achieved by the school are more easily identified, and the means for achieving them can be devised in an atmosphere of intelligent discussion rather than in one of emotional bias. Sometimes progress in a group is retarded merely because people do not see alike with respect to long-range and short-range goals. The long-range goal is so remote to some persons that it is obscured by the steps that must be taken to reach it. For these persons, the course to be traversed to reach the long-range objective must be broken down into readily attainable steps. The danger here is, of course, that an intermediate objective may be mistaken for the end in view.

There is another factor to be taken into consideration in planning and programing the work of the school. Often after several of the intermediate objectives have been reached, it is discovered that circumstances have changed, and it becomes necessary to alter the ultimate objective somewhat from the way in which it was originally visualized. Thus, there appears to be a means-end dichotomy which often plagues us. The experiences we undergo from time to time in accomplishing our purposes should be classified as information useful to the continuation of planning.

3. Seek a rational basis for agreement on the role of the school as one of the educating agencies of the community.

It must be clear to a large portion of the population that in each community there is a constellation of educating agencies. The home, churches, youth organizations, recreational programs, social and cultural institutions and mass communication media all claim the right and the obligation to exert an influence upon education. Naturally, the public school occupies a prominent position in this group of agencies.

This formidable list of institutions represents a sizable portion of the community resources that could, through team effort, achieve a well-rounded education for children and youth. Yet how often do community leaders meet to consider seriously the respective roles of these agencies in the joint enterprise of educating their children? Many communities through agencies, organizations, institutions and customs are educating their youth, literally inducting them into a way of life, with little or no common planning of either objectives, roles or the means appropriate to the accomplishment of this purpose.

Perhaps the public school, being without any private or parochial concern, has a responsibility for leadership here. Certainly the public school, created by state enactment, must act in the public interest. Much of the present criticism that the schools have assumed too large a portion of the educating function of the community might be eliminated by coming to an agreement on the respective roles of these agencies in the total educative enterprise. Clarification is needed about the specific educative function of the school as one member of the constellation of community agencies.

The 1959 Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators holds that the superintendent of schools should assume initiative not only in the development of an appropriate community educational program, but also in the clarification of the roles of specific agencies in the achievement of this program. Failure to accept this responsibility is an abdication of his role as an outstanding educational leader in the community. This is not to imply, however, that the leadership of the superintendent of schools is in itself sufficient to achieve the task, but, fortunately, leadership begets further leadership.

Task II. To Facilitate the Teaching-Learning Process—Develop Greater Effectiveness in Teaching

The arena for the action necessary to work out the task described in the preceding section is the total community. Various community organizations, the board of education and the professional staff of the school play important roles in deciding the nature of the educative enterprise and the role that the school shall have in it. The second important leadership task is centered in the school and is directed toward facilitating the teaching-learning process. Educational literature is now replete with descriptions of procedures for improving the effectiveness of teaching.

Although the influence of the professional staff is important in helping the people of the community decide what kind of education to provide their children and youth, the specific improvement of instructional processes is a professional problem. Indeed, the school staff must solve this problem. If it is true that teaching changes as teachers and the resources made available to them change, then leadership must be focused upon the means for effecting these changes.

The building principal plays a major role—Although the major focus of all administrative effort is upon the improvement of instruction, there must be some means of fixing responsibility for the instructional leadership in each building staff. This is the principal's major function. To discover the unique abilities of each teacher and the means by which the diversity of teacher competencies can best enhance children's learning requires a high level of perceptiveness. In every teaching group there are imagination, originality and creativeness, out of which capital must be made if these qualities are to be kept alive. Often, however, school principals are selected without regard to their competence to deal effectively with the varied resources within the staff.

Some schools have become so large that the many responsibilities of the office render the principal ineffectual in helping teachers make the most of their strengths or in providing them with the resources that they need for growth. Nevertheless, it is his responsibility in working with the staff of the school to see that instruction in his building is as good as possible with the resources available. It is through the leadership of principal and staff that the assets of a school's teachers are made available to the total system. It is also through this leadership that resources of the system are brought to the teachers of the individual school.

Whether the principal works directly with the teachers or whether he acts through an assistant principal, supervisor or other kinds of helping personnel, responsibility for the improvement of teaching in every classroom of his building rests with him. Thus, in the leadership pattern of any school system, the principal's role is a highly significant one. Much depends upon the climate which he sets in his building and whether he involves others in decision making.

Kinds of activity—The task of improving instruction is a difficult one. Many books have been written on the subject. Here, attention will be confined to the nature of the leadership functions associated with the task. The following actions are suggested:

1. Providing for continual clarification and mutual acceptance of the educational goals and the means for achieving these.

Sometimes the differences which exist among laymen concerning the functions of the school are perpetuated by differences which they perceive among members of the professional staff. Not only are such differences evident in casual conversation but they are also apparent in the manner of professional staff members in approaching their tasks. Although general agreement may be reached about goals at the policy level, it still remains for the staff to translate such agreements into operational terms. This is a professional job. Much research is available for use in carrying out this function. It is important that attention be given to the use of this research in determining the processes to be used in translating policy goals into operational realities. Some means must be found for the professional staff to work at this task continually and systematically. Whenever leadership in this direction is manifested, the evidence of it would appear in: (a) the provisions made for evaluating the effectiveness of the instructional processes; (b) the nature of the hypotheses established for improving practices; (c) the amount and kind of experimentation, exploration and creativity shown by the work of the group; and (d) the provisions made for the acquisition of new skills and the utilization of the new resources that are made available.

2. Employing an adequate concept of change.

Complaints have been registered against teachers and other school employees because of their lack of enthusiasm for the job and their failure to inspire children to learn. There are reports of teachers who attempt to fulfill their assignments with insufficient preparation and of those who, though arriving with the youngsters in the morning and leaving with them in the afternoon, give little, if any, thought to their teaching obligations and what they could do to make their work more meaningful for the children. On the other hand, some teachers report that too great a portion of their time is taken in performing routine tasks—taking attendance, correcting papers, keeping records, recording grades, performing clerical work—which, if done by persons employed for such purposes, would save valuable time for professional growth activities.

Students of the process of change suggest that people's involvement and participation in the growth and productivity of an enterprise are directly related to the opportunity which they have to affect the alternate courses of action open to them. Selznick (30:56) reports that members of an organization begin to take an interest in what that organization might become and what it might contribute to society when they have the opportunity to make *significant* rather than *routine* decisions for the organization. Ramseyer (26: Ch. II) and a research team studying administrative behavior in the schools stated that, after much observation, they were convinced that teachers and others having an opportunity to participate in the decision-making process give willingly of their time when convinced that it "makes a difference" in certain critical areas of behavior. In the Fifty-Sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, a team of researchers (1:197) reports greater success in curriculum development and instructional improvement when the central administration coordinates staff efforts than when it attempts to impose on teachers its own plan of activity.

The evidence seems to point to the conclusion that teachers (and other school workers) tackle the problems that appear important to them. Leadership in this area may be tested in terms of the degree to which areas for growth are being identified and acted upon.

3. Making the learning process the focus of all organizational effort.

When two or more persons work together, agreements and arrangements for synchronization of effort are necessary. By and large, the school has looked to other institutions for organizational models which have proved successful and which may be adapted to the operation of the school. Although there is some value in this approach, it must be remembered that the mission to be performed by the school is different from those of other institutions. Thus, we must look to this unique purpose—facilitating the learning of children and youth—as a test of organizational structure and its effectiveness.

Then, too, the variations in local situations make great differences in the working arrangements possible for different schools. Teachers differ in preparation and competence; buildings and instructional facilities differ in kind and function; customs, habits and ways of doing things differ from community to community; economic resources vary. Small schools are not miniatures of larger ones. Rural and urban schools are not alike in every respect except size. Formal organization is affected by the informal relationships that exist.

The leadership problem, then, is one of *organizational development and engineering* custom-made to serve the school's purposes and, at at the same time, to take advantage of the indigenous character of the situation in which it must operate.

4. Making adequate provision for institutional as well as individual change.

Institutions do not necessarily change in character as do a few of their members. Some changes offset the effect of others, for they operate against each other rather than in concert. So it is with the school. We must not make the mistake of assuming that because the in-service education program is effective for a few employees, the character of the entire institution is likewise improving. Administrators are too well aware of the fact that with the rapid turnover in teaching personnel, gains made one year may be nullified by the influx of untrained and inexperienced teachers in the following year. These new teachers must go through growth experiences similar to those of the teachers who have left the school system.

Although it is true that institutional change must come about through changes in individuals and groups, this does not happen automatically. Mechanisms must be created for consolidating the gains made by individuals. Too often the excellent results of experimentation or creative work on the part of a few teachers are lost to the school system because the findings are not shared with others. The leader of instructional improvement needs to encourage such creativity and to discover ways in which it can become useful to other teachers.

Some school leaders are constantly on the alert to find teachers who will try out new ideas, not merely for private gain, but for the school system as a whole. Care is taken to see that these teachers receive system-wide support throughout the period of experimentation and that periodic reports of progress are made for the benefit of all. Some school systems select their resource teachers for the year from among those identified as having promising contributions to make to others.

Action research—trying out new ideas and testing their effectiveness by school workers on the job—has become a popular mechanism for producing change. Too often, however, these efforts represent only sporadic attempts that are carried on by a few teachers without system-wide sanction and support and are so remote from the major ongoing program that schools are affected very little by them. Witness the high school program today and its similarity to that of 50 years ago. Institutional change must be based upon the testing of some propositions that seem, to the instructional staff, the parents and other citizens, to be worthwhile.

Any adequate theory of change in curriculum and teaching method, then, seems to be based on the fact (a) that such changes come through changes in thinking and behavior on the part of members of the professional staff, (b) that mechanisms can be found to make these changes a part of the institutional framework, and (c) that changes are conceived in terms of a series of propositions to be tested and for which both internal (teachers and administrators) and external (parents and citizens) support can be mustered. Leadership is both revealed and tested by the extent to which it facilitates these conditions for instructional improvement.

Task III. To Build a Productive Organizational Unit

In recent years those who are responsible for the development of preparation programs for educational administrators have given much attention to human relations. It is argued that modern schools have passed the era when educational administration could be based primarily upon the technical skills necessary to obtain and maintain buildings, manage the finances, construct schedules and work out the routines for record keeping. Naturally, these continue to be necessary functions in the operation of any school system. Nevertheless, in the past so much time and energy were devoted to them that critical decisions were made in great haste by a few people. These decisions, in turn, were transmitted to the staff in such form that they could only be interpreted as orders, and often they were intended to be so. Administrators complained that they were so busy there was little time for wide participation in making the important decisions.

Experience has taught us, however, that people have a higher degree of respect for and commitment to those decisions which they have helped to make than for decisions handed down to them by their official leaders. Thus, there is a greater likelihood that plans made cooperatively will be carried out by administrators and teachers with greater effect than will those handed down as orders, especially since the enforcement of administrators' orders to teachers has always been a precarious business. Unfortunately, in their attempts to be "democratic," school administrators and teachers have not been very clear about *who* should participate in making *what* decisions. In many instances apparently everybody has a part in every act, but no one has clear-cut responsibility for any act.

Halpin (10:10) has provided real help in clearing up this problem by suggesting that leader-behavior should have at least two dimensions—*consideration* and *initiating structure*. Consideration, as he defines it, is the attention that the leader gives to the interests and concerns of the workers of an organization in order to maintain their group solidarity and morale. Initiating structure is that behavior which keeps the group moving toward an accepted goal. Jenkins and Blackman (12:45) studied the effects of administrators' behavior on the teachers in some 40 elementary schools. They drew a conclusion similar to Halpin's, namely, that administrative behavior to be effective must be both task oriented and teacher oriented. Other research tends to support these conclusions.

Cooperative planning and group deliberation are essential—It would seem, then, that administration must move in the direction of cooperative planning and continuous group deliberation. It is not enough for administrators to take a benevolent attitude toward other school workers. They must realize that each school worker who tries to be professional about his responsibilities has a stake in education equal in importance to that of his colleagues. Basically, all school persons are together in the work of education. A way must be found for them to plan together on a high level, to work together effectively and to contribute significantly to the common enterprise. This means that there is need for warm personal relationships *and* a hard analytical look at effectiveness.

These activities are suggested—For planning together effectively it is proposed that the leadership function include:

1. Proposing and seeking agreement on an organizational structure which defines the functional working relationship required of all staff members to achieve the school's goals.

Neither teachers nor administrators would argue that organization is unnecessary. Both groups would agree that structure should be sufficiently fixed so that group members may make a disciplined effort to attain the goals which they have established. However, just as the goals must be decided by group effort so must the means. Teachers do not object to working by a set of rules. What they do oppose is control by rules that seem to them to make little sense. The best guarantee that regulations do make sense is that the people involved actually participate in formulating them and, furthermore, participate in defining the roles of the various persons who will enforce them.

Here, again, leadership is more concerned with *organizational development* by and for those who are affected by it rather than with the imposition of organization by one group upon another. Herein lies a danger, also. In the negotiating process that attends the development of a rational organizational structure, the groups involved —teachers, administrators, board members—may become so interested in their own stakes in the decisions to be made that they lose sight of the fact that the school is organized to promote learning. An organizational structure that is satisfying to school workers must take as the ultimate test of its functionality the extent to which it facilitates the learning process.

2. Seeking clarification and mutual acceptance of the roles of individuals and subgroups.

Assigning a teacher to perform a particular function or establishing a department to do a specific job for the school may not be sufficient. Such an act does not necessarily result in a clearer understanding of the total responsibility expected of the workers. A distraught first grade teacher complained, "If only I knew what is expected of me." She had found herself in a situation in which she felt there were conflicting expectations. The second grade teacher expected that when the pupils arrived in second grade they had already acquired certain knowledge and skills. The principal had no fixed opinions about this problem, but he did expect good discipline. The parents had expectations of their own—often ambitions which their children were incapable of fulfilling. And, finally, the teacher had her own ideas about what was appropriate first grade activity. In this case, could not some common basis of agreement be reached concerning the role of the first grade teacher?

Often the division of the school that is responsible for child study and other pupil personnel services and the instructional division of the school go about their tasks as though they were separate and distinct functions. Yet the members of each division criticize the others for neglecting to use resources appropriately in providing for the growth of children. Some clarification of roles is necessary here for determining how individual tasks may be organized so that the result is a well-integrated team effort. Official leaders should take the initiative in clarifying the roles of all school personnel.

3. Clarifying the authority-responsibility-power relationships among individuals and subgroups.

Development of an organizational structure for the operation of schools has been handicapped because of our inability to solve certain problems. The problems relate to the sources of authority and power and to the manner in which the responsibility of school workers is affected by these. In our application of organizational arrangements copied from business, industry and the military, school people seem to have assumed that all authority for school operation comes from an external source. Accordingly, proponents of this concept contend that the authority is the state and that through its laws and regulations certain powers have been passed on to local boards of education. This body, legally constituted by the state, passes on certain powers to the superintendent who, in turn, delegates to principals and, through them, to teachers and finally to pupils. Although this is the course through which *legal authority* must flow, school people now recognize that there are other kinds and sources of authority that must be considered in school organization.

The people of the immediate school district have some authority, which they exercise at the polls by passing or failing to pass tax levies and by electing school board members. But they exert even more power over school matters by the reflection of their attitudes toward school affairs which, in turn, affect the action of the board and, indeed, the entire professional staff. This situation is illustrated by the activity of special interest groups (sometimes called "pressure groups") and highly influential citizens (often called the "power structure" of the community), who often play major roles in helping people make up their minds on important issues (11).

Teachers and other members of the professional staff also exercise a great deal of authority as to how children and youth shall be taught. Actually, although the board of education must give legal sanction for the school program, its members do not consider themselves expert in such matters and should depend upon the entire professional staff's recommendations for a program, including both content and method. This places a tremendous responsibility on the professional staff for studying how children grow and learn, what demands society places upon the schools and what research and evaluation of past programs imply for future action. The right and the responsibility of the professional staff to propose program and method may be termed the *authority of professional competence.* It is one of the most important aspects of educational leadership.

A case may be made here for the authority of the pupils. Certainly, in a society such as ours there is need for a consideration of the ever-increasing role which children and youth must play in deciding their own destiny and that of the future society which they shall help to create. Induction into a responsible role in society calls for ever-increasing opportunity to be responsible. Thus far schools, in exploring this factor, have only begun to realize that it is one which must be reckoned with in making decisions about the school and its educational program.

The organization that will serve the schools adequately must recognize the multiple sources of authority. Those who assume leadership in organizational development must see that each group involved is respected for the contribution which it can make. And, finally, the organizational plan that is developed must be legalized by the action of the board of education. But the organization that is developed (and thus legalized) should not come from the top down. Rather, all functioning parts should be connected to some central planning division, clearinghouse or nerve center that is sensitive to the needs of its functioning members.

4. Making adequate provisions for communication throughout the school and with other agencies of the community.

Paradoxically enough, the nearer one's responsibility is to the core or nerve center of the organization, the more remote he may be from the great mass of workers. Often there is a barrier between central office workers and the teachers of a school, a condition emphasizing the need for better channels of communication. Ideas must flow into the center of control and out again. Those ideas flowing into the center must have some effect on the controlling mechanism, whereas those ideas emanating from the center must exert some control upon the members of the organization. Furthermore, there is a constant flow of informal communication among members of an organization. Teachers talk with each other and with members of other important decision-making bodies; likewise, parents and other patrons discuss school matters frequently. If one could tune in on these conversations, he could almost determine the state of the health and vigor of the organization. In many instances it is through this medium that the health of an organization is maintained. Attempts to curb or restrict informal communications almost always have unfortunate results. Leaders would do well to give more attention to the legitimate value of informal communication. They could contribute to a wiser use of such communication by making certain that people have the facts which are needed to dispel the ill effects of rumor and gossip. Someone has aptly said that it is more fruitful to feed the grapevine than to prune it too closely.

We know through research that people who work in organizations have a need for *face-to-face* communication with the person who is near the control center. Being able to talk with a person in such a position restores people's faith that they, too, are affecting major decisions. When communication with those who are assigned to central positions is restricted to formal processes, people suspect that communication is flowing one way only, that is, from the center out. Assuring two-way communication with considerable opportunity for face-to-face discussion requires a restriction in the number of people who may be assigned to work with a given leader. To remedy this situation, some large school systems have established smaller subsystems under the direction of a district superintendent. The subsystems are linked together by an administrative council including the district superintendents. In many schools increasing attention is given to the importance of the planning and developmental processes that occur within each building. In such schools the principal assumes the responsibility for staff leadership.

Other structural changes may result from testing the effectiveness of communication among teachers; between teachers and administrators; between teachers and other school workers; among the several schools of the school district; among professional personnel, parents and other school patrons. Further research is needed to produce appropriate instruments for the measure of intercommunication among those who have an effect upon what the school does. Knower and Wagner (14) have made an interesting beginning in this field by the development of a number of instruments to help educational leaders check the effectiveness of communication within the school.

5. Providing adequately for continuous appraisal.[1]

Schools have always found some means for measuring the progress of their students. Much time and effort of a staff are given to improving the marking system, revising the system of reporting these marks to parents and worrying about whether or not promotion from grade to grade is too easy or too difficult. But what about the school as an institution? How effectively is it doing its job?

Many self-styled critics have taken it upon themselves to evaluate the public schools in terms of their own criteria. Most of us would not agree, however, that their evaluation has any semblance of scientific method. Most of the recent writers in the slick magazines are not reporting on carefully structured scientific studies. For the most part, they represent a "tourist's impression" gained from hurried and casual visits in a few schools that are not at all representative of the work of the nation's schools.

However, scientific reports are available in this area. For example, the Department of Classroom Teachers and the American Educational Research Association (4) have developed a series of reports on what research has revealed about content and skill achievement of children in a number of areas and at various stages in their progress through school. Similar reports of pupil progress are now available from a number of sources. Such studies generally reflect the work of schools at large and often the national scene.

---

[1] A more extensive treatment of this topic may be found in Chapter Six.

But what are individual schools doing about self-evaluation? What is the plan used by each school system to determine how well *it* is doing *its* job? Here, we must admit, all too many schools are vulnerable. How is instruction appraised individually and for the institution as a whole? How is the adequacy of the curriculum determined? How effectively is the school administered? How do we know when the school is pulling its share of the educational load in the community? By what criteria do we determine effectiveness in these areas? What measuring devices do we use? How valid are these instruments? By whom are they used? What do we do with the evaluative data when we get them?

These are difficult questions, but they are inescapable. They will not be answered by merely raising them in staff meetings. Some mechanism must be established in each school through which such questions are raised, answers are determined and actions taken. School personnel, including teachers, service people and administrators, will need to shed their anxiety about taking a good hard look at their work and having it thoroughly examined by others. The community will need to face squarely the question of the importance of the educational enterprise and the degree to which its citizens support it in comparison with their other wants.

The best thinking on this problem to date suggests that systematic appraisal is a cooperative job, that it is most successful when school workers help each other move through each of the several steps required to complete the job and that it will be most effective if a plan of appraisal has been cooperatively developed and accepted as a basis for change. Here again, the initiative should be taken by officially designated leaders.

Task IV. To Create a Climate for Growth and the Emergence of Leadership

Weber and Weber, who draw an interesting analogy between a growing situation among members of a group and the conditions necessary for the growth of a healthy plant, state:

> The gardener who is concerned with developing beautiful gladioli does not exhort the bulbs to become beautiful flowers; he does not offer them prizes to entice them to become exhibits of natural beauty; he does not pin marks of achievement on them, which could be noticed by other bulbs in

the hope that such action would induce them to become flowers. On the contrary, the gardener knows better. He tills the soil; he fertilizes the soil; he tests the soil; he studies the soil and the nature of growth and development of gladioli bulbs; he studies the effect of environment upon the growth of bulbs. Then he plants bulbs in the way which seems most appropriate according to understandings he has developed. Once planted, he waters the soil and engages in other activities which, in his best judgment, are likely to improve the environment of bulbs so they will grow to full flower (34).

Of course, the analogy of growing plants is not entirely applicable to assisting human beings, who, unlike plants, think for themselves. However, we do know that environmental conditions influence the behavior of people. Thus the Webers' concept of the role of the gardener very aptly illustrates an important leadership function in improving instruction—that of improving the learning environment. It is equally as important for the growth of adults working in the school as it is for children.

The school leader is sensitive to good and to poor growing conditions and, as Weber and Weber say, "engages in activities which . . . are likely to improve the environment." Sometimes it is a simple matter to change certain troublesome physical conditions. Modifications in working relationships are often possible. Words of encouragement often help discouraged teachers. Recognition of minor contributions spur some teachers on to greater achievement. Recognizing at all times that the ultimate purpose is to create better learning conditions for boys and girls, official leaders do not merely "maintain a hands off policy" when it comes to improving learning. They take a positive attitude toward it.

Official leaders share responsibility—The atmosphere in which people grow in responsibility and competence is largely dependent upon the behavior of those who are in official leadership positions. Teachers, for example, are encouraged or discouraged by the treatment they receive from principals, resource personnel, supervisors, coordinators, directors and superintendents. Growth is both to be expected and encouraged. Usually it flourishes best when official leaders and other staff members are growing together. In-service education programs that fall short of providing learning experiences for officials and for other workers leave much to be desired.

Some conditions necessary to professional growth—The following conditions seem to be essential to growth in the competence of school personnel.

1. Teachers must feel that the climate of the school situation in which they work is conducive to creativeness, experimentation and the expression of individual skill and talent.

Leaders are alert to even the faintest evidence of creative work, and they assist teachers who engage in it by finding the appropriate resources to help them make their new ideas work. To encourage this further effort, leaders find ways of helping such teachers contribute to the changing character of the entire school program. Needless to say, when a good idea about the improvement of instruction is confined to one classroom, much of its potential value will be lost.

2. Teachers who have difficulties in teaching must feel free to ask for help.

Many teachers believe that it is not in their best interest to admit weaknesses because they are merely criticized and not helped. In a healthful climate for growth this situation would not exist; instead it would be recognized that most teachers have weaknesses just as surely as they have strengths. Competent supervision helps the teacher in difficulty to feel at ease, brings forth helpful suggestions for improvement, and insures as much of an adjustment of circumstances as possible to allow freedom for growth. Sometimes it helps to create this climate when leaders, too, admit that they make mistakes.

3. Support must be given to ensure the integrity of the school program and those who are working to improve it.

When teachers and the school program are being criticized, the teachers need to feel that their leaders are supporting them. The leader must stand up and be counted also. He must either support the program and the kind of instruction developed in his school system or admit that he is a member of a team that is not yet ready to do the job for which it is responsible. For the former position, he is armed with evidence. In the latter event, he must show that an improvement program is under way, *or*, if he wishes, relinquish the leadership to more capable hands.

4. Dependence must be placed upon emergent leadership.

Those who have been successful in assigned leadership positions have learned that leader behavior exhibited only by people in official positions can never be equal to the task of building an effective organization. Unless leadership emerges from the group, the organizational structure will not be strong enough to maintain itself. A strong and vigorous organization depends for its existence upon the emergence of leaders at all levels of its operation.

Student leadership is undeniably vital to a school program, no matter what the opinion of the faculty on this point may be. Leadership among teachers exists, and wherever groups of people come together, leadership of some kind emerges. The important point here is whether such leadership is recognized and utilized as a part of the ongoing program or is left to influence behavior in a different direction from that intended by those assigned to leadership positions. The vitality of an organization can be measured, in large part at least, by the kinds and amount of leadership that emerge within it.

5. Leaders are perceived as helpful.

No person is actually a leader unless his behavior affects group action. Furthermore, this behavior must be approved by the group; that is, the members recognize the influence upon them and sanction it. Assignment to a leadership position does not necessarily make a person a leader, for a leader is one whom the group perceives as helping its members achieve the group goals. There are instances in which the superintendent, principal, supervisor, director or coordinator may have "pulled rank" on the teachers rather than having led them. Group reactions to such behavior could easily sabotage all that those in leadership roles are trying to accomplish.

Hence, it would appear that when leadership is recognized by the group, those who demonstrate it might well become excellent prospects for official positions. When those who occupy official positions are not accepted by the group members, it is time to examine the effectiveness of the leaders.

6. Central office coordination supersedes central office control.

When leaders throughout the staff are recognized by members of the central administration and when dependence upon them is acknowledged, the role of the central office shifts from one of domination and control to one of coordination and synchronization of the efforts of the people on the team. It means that more people are thinking about the critical issues and that more resources from within the organization are being brought to bear in solving problems. It also means that a need arises for finding mechanisms to bring about a meshing of the various efforts into a unified program. This is not to say that the task of the central office becomes easier when it works through the leaders that can be discovered in the organization. But it does mean a change in emphasis. The leader does not improve upon the organization of a preconceived plan drawn up exclusively by top personnel; rather, he marshals the creative ideas of the workers in all levels of the organization. He coordinates their efforts and contributions and incorporates these into the ongoing organizational effort.

Task V. To Provide Adequate Resources for Effective Teaching

Within the faculty of every school there are resources for its growth. All that has been said thus far about leadership seems to indicate that leadership has not been truly effective unless there is an increase in the faculty's awareness of its own potential. On the other hand, an organization cannot be expected to continue growing without the aid of resources from the outside. Leaders should be sensitive to this need and should play an active role in supplying resources in ample quantity and in such form that they can be used to promote growth.

What resources can be brought to bear to realize our educational objectives? This depends in large measure upon the nature of the commitment of the persons who must work together to attain those objectives. For example, the extent to which controversial issues may be examined in the classroom depends upon how important these matters are to teachers; the willingness of institutions, agencies and individual citizens to have practices examined; and upon the wholehearted support of the school board. Fear of the consequences of such teaching on the part of any influential group makes the job difficult if not impossible. An attitude of neutrality on the subject leads to lethargy and, hence, to general ineffectiveness. On the other hand, vigorous support among the members of major decision-making groups can do much to make the community, its agencies, institutions and mores a basis for some of the most meaningful school experiences. Where social, cultural and political organizations invite study, furnish materials to be used in the classrooms, provide personnel to assist in the learning process and, above all, sanction the free examination of community issues, the schools can play an important role in inducting youth into community living.

For people to give a part of themselves as well as of their material resources to an enterprise, they must be convinced of its value. Leadership is needed to convince the public of the necessity for adding substantially to both the human and material resources that are being made available to education. Real commitment to the cause of education based on value received seems to be the clue to further resources.

The need for resource personnel—It is true that in any faculty there are teachers who can help others and also that there are principals and superintendents who can serve as resource personnel. Many schools, however, are so large and so complex that specialized personnel are needed to supply the staff with the resources necessary to meet the varied needs of their pupils. Nevertheless, the employment of extra personnel with specialized skills does not relieve anyone of his responsibility to be helpful. The recent growth in the number and the variety of competencies represented in resource personnel, however, is evidence of a growing recognition of the complexity of the educational process that is employed in schools designed to meet the needs of all of the children of all of the people.

Kinds of resources needed—Some of the kinds of resources needed are these:

1. Professional knowledge and skill.

Results of years of experience and research in the operation of schools and methods of teaching are available. It is an act of leadership to utilize this information in making decisions, solving problems and resolving issues that arise in the school. When Rudolph Flesch's book, *Why Johnny Can't Read,* first appeared, many administrators and even curriculum specialists and reading teachers throughout the country found it extremely difficult to defend their procedures against the ensuing barrage of uninformed criticism from their patrons. This is but one of the criticisms of the work of the schools that could be met with data now available. The so-called "crisis in education" may be due in large part to the fact that educational leaders are not making proper use of professional know-how in meeting present-day problems.

2. Human relations skills.

It must not be assumed that all people work well together even though they may have a great desire to do so. The will to behave in a particular manner is an important factor, but people are different. They have different values, beliefs, skills, aptitudes and motivations. The assistance of persons who understand these differences and who possess the skill for bringing people together in appropriate circumstances is often needed if good human relationships are to be developed. Those who can keep school people and their patrons working together on congenial terms in the face of differences which must be resolved are performing a real leadership function. Certainly, no leadership team is complete without personnel having special skills in human relations. In the concept of leadership advocated in this book, growth in understanding the dynamics of group work and skill in human relations are to be expected of those occupying positions of leadership.

3. Organizational skills.

How to make a plan operate—how to build an organizational framework to get the job done and yet maintain a high level of morale within the group—is absolutely essential knowledge in every good school. Many ideas will come from staff members, and these may be very valuable in developing a plan of operation. But no school staff is complete without individuals who have studied organization theory and who, because of the competence which they have demonstrated in organization building, command the respect and confidence of the teaching staff.

Once an organizational framework has been created within a school system, the engineering task remains. The organization must function. Fitting the framework to the peculiarities of the situation and adapting it to conditions which were not originally anticipated is a task of no mean proportions. Mistakes are often made, however, by those who attempt to force actual situations into established organizational patterns, rather than adjust the patterns until they work smoothly in the situations for which they were intended.

4. Conceptual skills.

Perhaps no skill in organizational work is more important than being able to visualize the depth and breadth of the task to be undertaken and to conceive of it as both a whole and a composition of many parts. Often, for example, teachers do not comprehend the vastness of the entire educational enterprise because the perspective with which they view it is limited by their exclusive preoccupation with only one particular portion of the total task. So it could be with any school worker or patron of the school system.

Into the organization must come those who have the larger view, and who can help those of shorter or narrower vision to understand the implications of the broader view for their individual tasks. These people bring a theory of education, a theory of change and a theory of organization and leadership to bear as they work with others in building and operating an educational program.

5. Specialized services.

Learning, being dependent upon so many conditions—physical health, emotional and psychological balance, varied growth patterns, home and neighborhood conditions, to name a few—is not achieved by a simple teacher-pupil relationship. The expert help of nurses, physicians, psychologists, social workers, and specialists in other fields is necessary to do the job as we now understand it. One of the requisites for an adequate school district is its ability to provide such services, and one of the responsibilities of leadership is to see that such services are provided and are properly interpreted.

In many schools, however, these services are relatively new. Teachers, administrators and special service personnel need to learn how to work together, and patrons of the school need to understand the value of the services rendered. Much work is needed to bring about understandings among all of these groups in order to improve learning.

6. Resources external to the situation.

All of the resources for staff growth mentioned thus far are provided, to some extent at least, within the staff. It is hoped that such resources would exist to some degree at many levels throughout the school system. They are especially important at the level of operation expected of officially assigned leaders—the superintendent, assistant superintendents, coordinators, directors, principals and supervisors—all of whom should be regarded and used as resource personnel.

However, if the school staff is to continue to grow and mature, the insights and understandings of its members must some day stretch beyond those generated from within. Ten years ago one of the authors of this book visited 15 school systems that had come to have a national reputation for their outstanding educational programs. All of these systems drew upon resources from other schools, colleges and universities, and even from organizations and institutions not generally closely associated with schools. Since that time an increasing body of evidence has accumulated to suggest that schools need to look for help from the outside to sustain their strength and to help them mature in ways of which they are capable. Professional and lay consultation is readily available to many schools. Leaders have the responsibility to identify the need for such resources, to know where competent help is available, to be willing to use it professionally and to provide budgetary allowance to make such help obtainable.

Why We Have Difficulty in Achieving These Tasks

We have said in a number of ways that leadership is a function of the interaction of persons. A person cannot display leadership behavior alone. His action must affect others. He is said to have exhibited leadership when his behavior influences those with whom he is associated to move toward the achievement of a common goal. To do this some leaders attempt to apply force, to rely on their personal attractiveness, to make capital stock of their personal friendships, or even "to pull rank"—their status in the hierarchy—if necessary. Unfortunately, these devices are still much too prevalent.

Long History of an Authoritarian-Oriented Theory of Leadership

As much as we abhor the thought of leadership by the means just described, we must remember that through a long history of their practice they have become common forms of behavior. Let us recall a bit of the history traced for us in the preceding chapter. For many centuries government was built upon the theory that there must be strong central control. In the monarchy, which was long the dominant form of rule, kings and their courts ruled the people. Church organization and government had their early beginnings in the leadership of a few whose interpretations of the scriptures were taken by their adherents as the final word. Business and industrial leadership came from the owners who could hire and fire as they saw the need to do so. The military has, of course, throughout the ages assumed a chain of command. The king, the bishop, the business or industrial magnate and the general were, at least in years gone by, people whose status was unquestioned. Many things were accomplished in the world then, as they are even today, as a result of this type of leadership.

Democracy Versus the Authoritarian Concept of Leadership

The Judaeo-Christian ethic upon which democracy has thrived holds the individual personality to be its most sacred trust. Institutions, organizations, governments—all organizational forms—according to this concept are made to serve the people. According to the democratic concept, then, the test of good leadership is the degree to which it helps the people whom it affects. It is understandable that another tenet of democratic action—that cooperative decision making produces more reliable results than decisions made by one person—is an outgrowth of the first. The people are, after all, the best judges of the value of the institutional forms that they build. Finally, in a democracy it is held that decisions must be made on the basis of the most objective data possible. Reliance upon whim, personal attachment or any form of bias is opposed to intelligent action. The term *leader* is ascribed to a person, according to this way of thinking, because of his competence to help people make decisions and fulfill the functions which, in general, are mutually acceptable to them—not because his birth or other circumstances place him in a position of high status.

It is a mistake to assume that democracy and authoritarianism lie on the same continuum representing the possible range in leader behavior. It is not that simple. The end of the continuum opposite authoritarianism is anarchy; democracy does not lie between them. What we have been trying to make clear, in this yearbook, is that authoritarianism and democracy require two different kinds of behavior. They stem from sets of assumptions that are mutually exclusive. When an administrator asks the question, somewhat in despair, "How democratic can we get?" he is expressing a lack of faith in processes that have so far been developed for democratic action, not necessarily in the objectives to be achieved by such action.

We must remember that democracy does not mean a system of decision making in which all people vote on all questions. In a democracy we are constantly experimenting with more effective methods of bringing the intelligence of the people to bear on a problem. Authoritarianism has no truck with this, for the source of intelligence is known and the process by which it is applied to problem solving is fixed by those in power.

Failure To Solve the Authority Problem

Not all of the people of the world hold with us the belief that schools should be instruments for the whole development of all of the children of all of the people. In some societies, the development of people is not the primary goal; the national interest is the uppermost aim, and schools are only instruments for achieving it. Therefore, selective development of children is practiced because such development is thought to be the best means to promote the way of life to which they subscribe. A nationalistic form of control of the schools is therefore required to accomplish such ends.

In America, however, schools are constantly discovering new means for helping more children and youth grow and develop in ways of which they are capable. To do this requires that all who are engaged in such an endeavor put their intelligence to work on the job. In many instances we flounder. We do not know what to do with ideas that are in opposition to one another. Decisions are not always based on intelligence. Emotions flare up. People take opposing positions, and school administrators become frustrated. In such situations the administrator is tempted to resort to authoritarian practices and, because of his position in the hierarchy, to tell people what they can and cannot do, that is, attempt to use position to enforce commands.

Perhaps one of the weaknesses of the American school system is that, in our attempt to be democratic, we have not solved the problem of authority. How can everyone be in authority at the same time? It is not in times of emotional stress that people solve such problems. The time to develop agreement on the rules of the game is when people can be rational and when each person can understand the other's stake in the process of making decisions. But rules of the game there must be—rules that have been agreed to by the governed. This includes ascribing power for the enforcement of rules by the rational authority of group consent.

Lack of Precision in the Definition of Leadership

Society has always placed a premium on leadership. Perhaps because of the value connotation which we ascribe to such behavior, we have thought of leaders as people who are superior. The "divine right" of kings is an example of such a conception. The supremacy of race, position in the social class structure or being born on the right side of the tracks are all forms of the same value connotation. It is said that some people are "born leaders." Others contend that the times and circumstances make the leaders.

For many years it was believed that leaders were people who possessed a set of characteristics or traits different from those who were destined to be followers. If these approaches were completely reliable, the approach to the determination of leaders would be quite simple. But our long experience with this approach suggests that such a method is not completely reliable. A number of studies (9:312; 23; 32:64) reveal that successful leaders in different situations possessed strikingly different traits. After their review of the research on leadership, Weber and Weber (34) hold that the traits approach is inadequate to explain the meaning of leadership. Stogdill (32:64) comes to a similar conclusion but, in doing so, points out that such traits as are important in leadership are *capacity,* including intelligence, verbal facility, and judgment; *achievement,* including scholarship and knowledge; *responsibility,* including dependability, self-confidence, and ambition; *participation,* namely adaptability, sociability, and activity;

and *status,* or socioeconomic position and popularity. However, possessing these characteristics does not insure that people are or will become leaders. These abilities seem to be a part of the competency pattern of people who have been termed leaders. But many others who have similar traits have exhibited little leadership activity.

Except for *capacity,* the characteristics mentioned above may be acquired. They are not solely a part of one's native equipment. The staff of the Ohio State Leadership Studies, as a result of its investigations, has found it more meaningful to speak of the *leader behavior* of people rather than of their leadership ability or capacity. Describing leader behavior permits one to speak of what people do when they are leading. When leadership is thought of in this way, attention is focused upon the interaction of people and the roles they play in a group situation, not upon the kinds of people in the situation and their personal attributes.

This procedure, although a relatively recent discovery, has proved to be a more fruitful means of studying the leadership situation than the trait approach. As a result, leadership acts are identified, and the group interaction can be described quite reliably, whereas when sole reliance was placed on the trait approach, there could be no assurance that persons having certain traits (personality, capacity, responsibility and others) could be depended upon to lead in all situations. The personal-qualities approach sampled the static characteristics of persons; it did not describe the dynamics of leadership as a process.

Emergence of New Theory about Leadership

Fortunately, a great deal of attention has been centered upon an analysis of what we mean by leadership. Attention has been drawn to some leadership studies, most of which have been conducted since World War II. In part, they have been concerned with testing hypotheses about effective leadership derived both from democracy and authoritarianism. The following statement is a succinct and concise summary of the agreements among researchers. The consistency of the propositions derived from research with the democratic theory of behavior is clear.

When attention is focused upon the interaction of people in groups, factors such as the following become important: initiative, originality, communication, empathy, cooperation, cohesiveness and productivity. From such factors of group behavior as these the quality of the relationship among people is immediately suggested. In addition to the research mentioned above there are now many studies in the fields of psychology, sociology, anthropology, business administration, public administration and education that support the following propositions (8, 9, 13, 15, 23, 29):

1. Changes in the behavior of people are manifestations of changes in their perceptions, understandings, insights, values, beliefs, motivations, habits and/or skills.

2. Institutional changes are dependent upon the amalgamation of changes in individuals (by grouping, coordinating, organizing, programming, and rearranging ways in which individuals work together).

3. Leadership is a product of the interaction which takes place among individuals in a group, not of the status or position of these individuals.

4. All normal individuals and groups, at all levels of the hierarchical structure of a group, institution, or society, exhibit leadership behaviors to some degree. That is, they show potential for stimulating interaction to some degree, somewhere, under certain conditions.

5. The quality of the interaction of persons in a group may be distinguished by such action terms as initiative, originality, communication, empathy, understanding, cohesiveness, morale, productivity.

6. Activity on the part of an individual that tends to clarify thinking, create better understanding, or otherwise cause group action is called leader behavior or leader activity.

7. Because a person exhibits leader behavior in one group is no guarantee that he will or can do so in others. All people exhibit this behavior in some degree in certain groups.

8. Situations that are different make different demands upon the leader. That is, behaviors that cause a person to be a leader in one situation may not work equally well in others.

9. People who exhibit leader behavior in several kinds of groups (are perceived by others as leading in a variety of group situations) come to be called leaders.

10. Status assignments may either enhance or reduce the effectiveness of leader behavior. Such assignments place individuals in group situations where this behavior is more readily perceived by greater numbers of people. Status (if used as power) may destroy the effectiveness of leader behavior.

11. Leadership leads to an ordering of events according to importance. Selznick (30) refers to this as placing a higher priority on the

critical rather than the routine decisions that have to be made in an institution.

12. Designating a person as a leader implies that authority is attributed by group members to someone they perceive as an appropriate person to carry out this role for them.

13. The leader does not determine the norms of the group; groups choose, as leaders, the persons who best exemplify their norms. Every group has certain critical norms which the leader must exemplify.

14. The effectiveness of leader behavior is measured in terms of mutuality of goals, productivity in the achievement of these goals, and the maintenance of group solidarity.

If these propositions are at all valid, the obvious implication is that the members of a group become more highly motivated and involved when leadership takes place among them than when no leader behavior is exhibited. Something happens to the quality of the group relationship or to the group's productivity when leadership is experienced. The problem that confronts us now is how to devise some structure or organization in which this theory may be more effectively applied to accomplish the five leadership tasks necessary to the improvement of instruction.

An Organizational Structure Consistent with a Democratic Philosophy of Leadership

Educational administration today is moving toward a sound organizational theory. Superintendents of schools have developed elaborate organizational charts to distinguish between line and staff functions. They have reduced the span of control (number of persons responsible to one line officer) and in many instances have reduced the pyramidal altitude so that the distance between the superintendent and the teacher is less than formerly. All of these efforts are in the right direction.

Perhaps one of the more significant changes in administration is the improvement that is being made in communication. Most of the recent studies of educational administration carried on by universities under the sponsorship of the Cooperative Program in Educational Administration (22) report progress in communication between the school and the community as well as within the school system between the administrative officers and the teachers. In fact, the CPEA effort has had a decided influence in improving human relations in school operation.

Various attempts have been made to improve upon the line and staff system of organization. It is claimed that, since the idea has been borrowed from older institutional organizations, authoritarianism is inherent in it. We would argue that the principles of organization are more important than the chart. These principles can be made more understandable to the people who must take responsibility for the development of an organization. As this is done, faith in their ingenuity will be enhanced to such an extent that people will trust them to invent an organizational structure that is appropriate for instructional improvement. First, let us consider the principles of operation which seem to be consistent with the new theory of leadership. We then have the responsibility to point up some of the critical problem areas in school organization.

Principles of Organization Consistent with a Modern Theory of Leadership

1. Organizational structure is designed as an instrument by which members of an organization together with their clients outside of the organization arrive at mutual goals and ways of achieving them.

In the operation of schools, arrangements are made to so order the relationships between the professional (school worker) and the lay people that it is possible to come to common understandings as to goals and the means to be used in achieving them. This should result in clear and concise statements of purposes and of policy which are legalized by direct action of the board of education.

2. Organizational structure is invented to carry policy agreements into action.

When policy agreements are attained, rules of procedure for placing them in operation are necessary. The organizational structure of the school should make provision for the development of this procedure. This is primarily a function of the internal staff working under the direction of the superintendent of schools as its leader. Rules of procedure have meaning for a staff that has had a part in building them, not in terms of their private interests, but in terms of public policy already adopted. Rules and regulations agreed upon by workers should become a formal procedure of the organization. They should be written and constantly tested for their effectiveness as means of achieving the goals intended. They should be revised on the basis of this test.

3. The operational procedures must provide for a division of labor with a definite set of job expectations for each of the workers.

The definition of roles and the job expectations of all of the workers is essential. In the school it is understood that teachers, librarians, janitors, principals, resource personnel, superintendents, bus drivers, psychologists, nurses and many other kinds of workers are necessary. Team effort can be accomplished only by diligent effort to arrive at agreement about their functions and the relationships that must exist among them.

4. The authority for the activity carried on by the members of the organization is derived from three sources: the legal limitations placed upon the institution, the institutional policy and the agreement on job expectations indicated above.

The school is a creature of the state. Thus, the state places certain limitations upon it and also delegates certain power to it. The agreement on policy for local action, the operational procedures developed within the school and the legal basis for school operation must be consistent with each other. When this consistency is achieved and understood by those operating the school, this understanding provides a *rational authority* (5:196) (it makes sense to those involved and is, therefore, approved) for each worker to carry out his function according to operational procedures agreed upon. Every worker has the sanction, then, of the organization—*organizational authority*—for the job he performs. He does not acquire his authority from the superintendent or from the school board or from the state alone. He has the authority of the organization which is ascribed to him from the mutuality of understanding of legal limitations, local policy, and operational procedures developed by and for the workers.

5. Adequate provision is made for the emergence of leadership within the organization.

It is understood that when people work together either informally or in formal organizations some emerge as leaders. An organizational framework for the school is built upon the principle that this is vital to the life of the school. Therefore, provision is made for group action —committees, local building units, advisory councils, etc.—as a means of getting wide participation in decision making because of the value of the ideas for the institutional effort and for the development of leadership qualities of the individual school workers. In other words, the organization places great reliance upon emergent leadership.

6. Status in an organization is earned through group acceptance and demonstration of competence and not by virtue of assignment.

Although it is necessary in the school to have a division of labor calling for principals, supervisors, coordinators, directors, etc., these persons are not leaders by virtue of their assignments. It is to be hoped that only those who can demonstrate their leadership in such positions would be assigned to them or would be permitted to remain in them. The status which they hold and even the authority which they exercise must be ascribed to them and accepted by their fellow workers.

7. Organizational structure makes provision for catalytic, coordinating, expediting, consulting, helping, appraising and controlling functions.

Often these are called the administrative and supervisory functions. And so they may be. But there must be organizational authority (rational agreement) for these functions before they can have any real effect upon the productivity of the staff. Nor are these functional processes carried out merely by persons in status positions. In the schools it is necessary to assign people to positions in which these are their primary or particular functions, but such functions are never carried out solely through the official leaders. Personnel assigned to other positions must accept the leadership behavior of those who have these functions as primary responsibilities and carry the work on to completion if, indeed, these activities are to be worthwhile.

8. Organizational structure encourages both formal and informal communication.

Freedom of expression of ideas is vital to any organization. Ideas must be permitted to flow among the members of the organization. They must somehow get into the organizational framework in such a way that they make a difference in the organizational job. Two-way or intercommunication is essential. Schools are finding ways to keep channels open so that the thinking of the teachers will get into administrative and supervisory activity as well as vice versa. The important consideration here is that matters which seem crucial to any member of the group get into channels where organizational attention to them is assured.

9. Organizational structure provides resource people who work toward organizational betterment through small groups.

There is considerable evidence available now to show that programs of in-service education designed to help many people in a single meeting are quite ineffectual. Conferences and conventions using a lecture approach to large groups have very little effect upon behavior. Work that is done in small groups to solve problems of common concern accomplishes much more. Coordinators, resource people, directors and other administrative personnel whose function is to improve the productivity of the organization should work in face-to-face contact with teachers and other school employees.

10. Innovation, creativity, experimentation are encouraged as means of improving the achievement of institutional purposes.

Although new ways of doing things are, at times, difficult to fit into the customary routines of an organization, they are essential to growth. They require the development of machinery for testing the effectiveness of what the organization is doing. Real leaders know that their schools may be vulnerable in spots. They are, therefore, always on the lookout for staff members who have ideas for improving the customary procedures. Such people are given organizational sanction, thus protecting them from sabotage, and are assisted in determining the effectiveness of efforts toward meeting the institutional goals.

11. Appraising the effectiveness of the school is of vital importance.

Teachers have long been in the habit of appraising the work of their pupils. They have not been as intent upon the appraisal of their own efforts. The present public concern about the effectiveness of the work of the school has quickened the pace toward the evaluation of not only the work of individual teachers but also the total institutional effort. This is going to involve the entire staff in taking a critical look at how the separate efforts of individuals and groups add up to determine the effectiveness of the *school's* work.

Critical Areas in the School's Organizational Structure

As we examine the organizational structure of the school and appraise its appropriateness, three levels of operation seem to stand out as areas critically in need of improvement.

Making policy decisions—One of these areas is the stage of operation at which policy is made. Here is a place where the superintendent assumes the central leadership role. It is his responsibility to take critical issues to the people. In large measure the degree of public understanding of the role of the school in the community depends upon his leadership. In return, the degree to which the school reflects the thinking of the people depends upon the manner in which such thinking is used in making important policy decisions.

Although policy decisions are finally made by the board of education, we have reached a stage in school organization where it must be recognized that lay citizens of the community and the professional staff members play major roles in policy formulation. The board of education can no longer afford to act on policy matters without the benefit of the considered judgment of these two groups. An important structural device, therefore, is that which is invented to bring about an exchange of thinking between these two major reference groups.

The advisory committee to the board of education is the most common mechanism used for this purpose. Although some claim can be made for its effectiveness in obtaining a cross-fertilization of ideas, a much more intimate exchange of thinking between lay people and professional school workers is needed. Much of this must be done at the local school level in neighborhood groups. Teachers, pupils, parents and other school patrons need to arrive at their understandings about school in face-to face situations. These understandings must find their way into the policy decision-making mechanism. Much more needs to be learned about the use of the open forum, the neighborhood discussion groups, the local building meetings of parents and teachers, grade-parent meetings and student-parent forums as means for arriving at a greater understanding of school matters.

Programming decisions—Once policy decisions are made, a school program to implement them must be developed. This is largely a job for the professionals, but it cannot be assumed that if they perform this function behind closed doors, the public will understand and accept it.

To do this job adequately, the central office staff should include a corps of workers who have been highly trained in curriculum and program development. It should be their function to stimulate program development at the building level and to coordinate building efforts so that a system-wide program emerges.

The building principal should assume the key leadership role in this activity in the building to which he is assigned. If he is a leader, he will recognize that the teacher gets his professional challenge from the opportunity which he has to contribute to program development. A teacher who feels that those in central positions do not consider his ideas worth using has little incentive to grow professionally.

Building principals, however, must not assume that the individual schools within a school system are completely autonomous. Some attention must be given to the need for a system-wide program. Hence, central office coordination is important at this stage of action. The problem to be solved is how the building units can be stimulated to develop the best program possible for the neighborhoods which they serve and, at the same time, make their appropriate contribution to the total system of which they are parts. Building principal leadership; staff, pupil, and patron participation; and central office coordination all seem to be important factors in the achievement of this goal.

Teaching-learning decisions—Here the individual teacher must be given a great deal of freedom. It is in the classroom that he has his greatest opportunity for leadership. This does not mean that he is left alone to shift for himself. But leadership at this level is not supervising him to see that what he does fits into a preconceived manner of teaching. The supervisor or resource person looks first for the uniqueness of the pupil-teacher relationship and how this affects the learning process. The challenge to the supervisor is to determine in what ways he can contribute so that learning is enhanced.

Organizational structure provides for a corps of resource persons who have exhibited special talents for helping teachers by bringing appropriate resources to bear on each teaching situation. Here again the building principal must assume a leadership role. Although it may not be assumed that in all cases he can or should work with individual teachers, he must have the ability to get appropriate resources to his teachers and to stimulate and encourage them to use their resourcefulness in providing learning experiences for the children.

In addition to his own efforts to help teachers, the principal—and his teachers—should have the assistance of highly competent supervisory or resource personnel who are employed to work throughout the school system as needed. At this level the central office function is *service* to its separate schools and their teachers.

Summary

If democracies are to retain their world leadership, they must continually demonstrate their competence to meet world crises and contribute in large measure to the solution of world problems. Confidence in them and the methods they employ for solving problems will be dependent upon their ability to prove that through the exercise of the intelligence of the people, competence and expertness—not mediocrity—are achieved. Schools have a great responsibility in a democracy. It is through them that children and youth are inducted into a society that holds them responsible for intelligent decision making and action.

To do this, schools must focus attention on the development of people as contributing members of the groups and institutions of the communities in which they live and earn a livelihood. The interaction of members of a group and the leadership behavior that enhances this interaction are vital considerations of such an educational enterprise. Five leadership functions of the school are postulated as necessary to the improvement of instruction in American public schools. Confusion in thinking about the concept of leadership causes us to vacillate in practices. Fortunately, however, research has provided us with basic information which, if properly used, will greatly improve leadership in the schools. It is most essential that this information be applied to a revision of the school's organizational structure, for it is our concept of organization and structure that controls the working relationship of those who guide the education of children and youth. Rather than to recommend a given structure, the authors have elected to establish a set of principles by which creative leaders may be guided in working with a staff to build a structure indigenous to the situation —one which can be built and rebuilt to meet changing exigencies.

The discussion moves now to the way in which leaders see their behavior as it is mirrored back to them. This, together with the expectancies and perceptions of those with whom they work, constitutes the elements of the portrait of leadership which will be critically examined throughout the remainder of the book.

Bibliography

1. Berge, Marvin L.; Harris E. Russell; and Charles B. Walden. "In-Service Education Programs of Local School Systems." *In-Service Education for Teachers, Supervisors, and Administrators.* Fifty-Sixth Yearbook, Part I, National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1957. Chapter 9, p. 197-223.
2. Doddy, H. H. *Informal Groups and the Community.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951.
3. Doll, R. C., and others. "An Experiment in Training Teachers for Discussion Group Leadership." *Educational Leadership* 10:112-17; November 1952.
4. Department of Classroom Teachers and American Educational Research Association. *What Research Says to the Teacher* series. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association.

5. Dubin, Robert. *Human Relations in Administration.* Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1951. p. 196-97.

6. Eichler, George A., and Robert R. Merrile. "Can Social Leadership Be Improved by Instruction in Its Techniques?" *Journal of Educational Sociology* 7:233-36; December 1933.

7. Fleishman, E. A. *Leadership Climate and Supervisory Behavior.* Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1951.

8. Grinker, R. R., and J. P. Spiegel. *Men Under Stress.* Philadelphia: Blakiston Company, 1945.

9. Hackman, Ray C., and Rexford G. Moon, Jr. "Are Leaders and Followers Identified by Similar Criteria?" *American Psychologist* 5:312; 1950.

10. Halpin, Andrew. *The Leadership Behavior of School Superintendents.* Columbus, Ohio: College of Education, The Ohio State University, 1956.

11. Hunter, Floyd. *Community Power Structure.* Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1953. 297 p.

12. Jenkins, David H., and Charles A. Blackman. *Antecedents and Effects of Administrator Behavior.* Columbus, Ohio: College of Education, The Ohio State University, 1956. p. 45.

13. Jennings, Helen H. *Leadership and Isolation.* New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1943.

14. Knower, Franklin H., and Paul H. Wagner. *Administrative Communication Rating Scale, Administrators Self Evaluation Inventory of Communication Principles,* and *Test of Judgment of Communication Principles.* Columbus, Ohio: Communications Committee, The Ohio State University, 1958.

15. Lewin, Kurt; Ronald Lippitt; and Ralph K. White. "Patterns of Aggressive Behavior in Experimentally Created 'Social Climates.'" *Journal of Social Psychology* 10:271-99; 1939.

16. Lippitt, R. "An Experimental Study of Authoritarian and Democratic Group Atmospheres." *Studies in Child Welfare* 16:45-193; 1939. (Iowa City: State University of Iowa.)

17. Lippitt, R., and R. K. White. "An Experimental Study of Leadership and Group Life." *Readings in Social Psychology.* Edited by T. Newcomb and E. Hartley. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1947. p. 315-30.

18. Lipset, S. M. "Leadership and New Social Movements." *Studies in Leadership.* Edited by A. W. Gouldner. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950.

19. MacKenzie, Gordon N., and Stephen M. Corey. *Instructional Leadership.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1954. 209 p.

20. Merei, Ferenc. "Group Leadership and Institutionalization." *Human Relations* 2:23-39; 1949.

21. Miller, Van, editor. *Providing and Improving Administrative Leadership for America's Schools.* Report of NCPEA. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951. 74 p.

22. Moore, Hollis A., Jr. *Studies in School Administration.* Washington, D. C.: American Association of School Administrators, a department of the National Education Association, 1957.

23. Myers, Robert. "The Development and Implications of a Conception of Leadership for Leadership Education." University of Florida Doctoral Dissertation, 1954. (Unpublished)

24. Office of Strategic Services. *Assessment of Men.* New York: Rinehart and Company, 1948.

25. Pierce, Truman, and others. *Community Leadership for Public Education.* New York: Prentice-Hall, 1955. 312 p.

26. Ramseyer, John A., and others. *Factors Affecting Educational Administration.* Columbus, Ohio: College of Education, The Ohio State University, 1955. Chapter 2.

27. Roethlisberger, F. J., and W. J. Dickson. *Management and the Worker.* Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1946.

28. Roff, Merrill. "A Study of Combat Leadership in the Air Force by Means of a Rating Scale: Group Differences." *Journal of Psychology* 30:229-39; 1950.

29. Sanford, Fillmore H. "Some Characteristics of the Follower Which Influence Leadership Phenomena." *American Psychologist* 4:262-63; 1949.

30. Selznick, Philip. *Leadership in Administration.* White Plains, N. Y.: Row, Peterson and Company, 1957. p. 56-61.

31. Shartle, Carroll L. *Executive Performance and Leadership.* Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1956. p. 302.

32. Stogdill, R. M. "Personal Factors Associated with Leadership: A Survey of the Literature." *Journal of Psychology* 25:64; January 1948.

33. Stouffer, S. A. *The American Soldier.* Vol. II, "Combat and Its Aftermath." Princeton, N. J.: Princeton University Press, 1949.

34. Weber, C. A., and Mary E. Weber. *Fundamentals of Educational Leadership.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1955. 279 p.

35. Weschler, L. R.; M. Kahane; and R. Tannenbaum. "Job Satisfaction, Productivity and Morale." *Occupational Psychology* 26:1-14; 1952.

36. Whyte, W. F. *Street Corner Society.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1943.

CHAPTER THREE

EXPECTATIONS THAT INFLUENCE LEADERS

CHAPTER Two has developed five tasks for leadership in facing the urgent demands presented in Chapter One. Difficulties in achieving these tasks were attributed to conflicts between old and emerging patterns of leadership as well as to confusions relative to leadership concepts and practices.

Achievement of the kind of leadership presented in Chapter Two is markedly influenced by the expectations which educators and lay citizens have for leadership. These expectancies relative to leadership not only influence the style and function of leadership but also staff effectiveness, efficiency and satisfaction. The importance of expectancies in relation to sound programs of instruction suggests the need to explore their nature, their importance, their bases or determining influences and ways for working with them in the interest of helping leadership meet the instructional challenges of today. This chapter undertakes such an exploration.

One way to examine these expectancies is through an analysis of roles and role relationships which are believed to have significance for the quality of learning and consequently for the product of schooling. Students in several of the social sciences have long used varying concepts of role. The term role will be used here to indicate what the holder of a position does as a result of expectations held by himself or others (13:18). Attention will not, in the main, be directed to roles and role expectations in small groups as these present a number of unique or additional problems. Further, it seems reasonable to assume that leadership styles which succeed in small informal groups may not be equally effective in the formally organized work of schools (1, 14, 15, 17). Some studies may be drawn upon, however, in which an official leader, the superintendent of schools, is working with a small group such as a board of education.

In the following pages of this chapter attention is first given to the negative influences upon leadership when role expectancies are confused or in conflict. Reasons for diversity in expectancies and their consequences are examined. Finally the means available for clarifying role perceptions and resolving role conflicts are discussed. It should perhaps be emphasized at the beginning of this discussion that school systems are increasingly using carefully planned measures for role interpretations as a means of preventing role conflicts before they arise. The following discussion is intended to encourage further efforts of this kind. Such conflicts are not inevitable and can be avoided through measures like those described in the section of this chapter entitled "Clarification of Role Perceptions and the Resolution of Role Conflicts."

Nature of Role Expectancies and Role Conflicts

A school system or individual school building can be thought of as a network of forces. Some of these stem from the school organization and its purposes. Others originate with the personal and professional needs of the people involved. For each position in a school there are certain expectancies as to what the holder of this position will do, or as to the role he will fulfill.

One assumption being made in this chapter is that the quality of the leadership productivity of the school and the morale of its staff will be related to the clarity, interrelatedness and agreement relative to the expectancies held for various roles. Thus, teachers are usually expected among other things to provide instruction. These specific expectancies may vary from wanting the teacher to be a conveyor of facts and a drill master to viewing the teacher as a guide in discovery and creativity. Principals are usually expected to administer a school, but this general responsibility indicates little as to the manner of administering or as to the kinds of help and assistance that are to be given to teachers. Similarly supervisors and curriculum workers are expected to help improve instruction, and superintendents are to work with boards of education executing the policies which boards establish and administering the whole school system. The detailed expectancies relative to these positions, however, are not uniform and precise. There is only the most general type of consensus as to expectancies among the various individuals who may be concerned. The holder of a position may have expectancies for himself which are or are not in harmony with those held by others.

The assumption seems reasonable that if children are to be educated the holders of these various positions involved in the operation of the school will of necessity work together in many ways. Each will accept certain responsibilities which in many cases will be shared with others. Much exchange of information, sharing of concerns and mutual support and help will be essential. A considerable measure of agreement as to role expectancies will be important in the success of the total educational operation.

The importance of assigned roles within the school structure is usually clearly evident. However, the fact that each position holder has personality needs is not always as clearly seen. It is the contention here that these must be reasonably well satisfied. Also, adjustments must be made by each holder of a position if he is to fulfill the role expectancies of others. Without satisfaction of personality needs the individual is likely to operate at a lower level than would be possible otherwise, and the whole school system is likely to suffer.

To clarify further the interrelatedness of role expectancies and their impact on teaching and learning, three major organizational roles will be discussed. In each instance attention will be given to illustrative types of expectations, as well as to influences which are potentially disruptive or facilitating in carrying out these role expectancies. No attempt is made in these illustrations to define what the role is or should be. Some of the possible consequences for teaching and learning of the various role expectations will be indicated to round out these examples. A somewhat similar analysis of role expectations in cooperative research has been made by Miles (18).

The Curriculum Worker

Curriculum workers in school systems have many different titles such as helping teachers, supervisors, coordinators, and directors of instruction. While the positions vary considerably, they generally share with other official leaders such as principals and superintendents a common and primary concern for maintenance of a high quality of teaching and for bringing about improvements wherever possible.

Curriculum workers frequently are charged with responsibility for such matters as individual or group work with a staff on the improvement of instruction, assistance in providing curriculum materials and resources, the organization and administration of in-service education programs, cooperative work with staff to help maintain high levels of group morale and productivity, work with parents on curriculum planning and a host of related matters.

The role of curriculum workers often appears to be ambiguous. This may be due to such considerations as the relative newness of the positions, confusion as to whether they are operating in a line or a staff relationship and the fact that many have not had special preparation for their assignments.

When there is clarity as to the role of these individuals, there has frequently been considerable central office attention to the gradual defining of roles on a cooperative basis and in terms of many specific tasks and operations. When principals and teachers are continuously involved in this process, there is a likelihood that the degree of consensus relative to the roles of these workers will be increased. Lack of clarity on the part of curriculum workers as to their roles may result in diffuse and random efforts which do not contribute to the building of needed skills and appropriate channels for productive effort.

Where there is not continuing attention to the clarification of the roles of curriculum workers, the potentiality for disrupting influences increases. Principals may feel threatened and insecure because of a lack of clarity relative to their own role in comparison with that of the curriculum worker. In a sense the inhabitants of these two positions may have an overlapping responsibility in respect to the instructional program.

In some situations, principals and teachers may feel that they are being subjected to competing pressures from a great variety of curriculum workers or special subject supervisors each of whom has a special interest. These feelings may be expressed in such ways that curriculum workers experience feelings of anxiety and insecurity relative to the expectations held for them. A lessening of their potential effectiveness may result.

The Principal

An examination of the varying role expectations relative to the holder of another position in the school system, the principal, will further illustrate the potential impacts on teachers and on learners.

The principal is commonly charged with such responsibilities as leadership in instruction and curriculum development, student personnel administration, staff personnel administration, community leadership, administration of the school plant and facilities, and organization of the school for its effective operation. Within these commonly listed areas of responsibility, specific behaviors are expected by those associated with the principal.

The principal may give verbal acceptance to responsibility in all of the areas just listed, but, as an example, he may not see clearly how he can contribute to the instructional program. Although he may try to follow frequent exhortations in professional publications to visit classes and to foster staff study of instructional problems, he may not be clear as to the specific actions on his part which are likely to stimulate increased learning and insight by teachers as to their roles. His lack of clarity may be complicated by pressure from the superintendent's office for immediate results in terms of improved scores on achievement tests. Other pressures from the superintendent's office may be actual or imagined.

Individual parents may express concern about the lack of achievement by their sons and daughters and expect the principal to secure prompt improvement by having one or more teachers change their methods of teaching. The principal may resist these pressures, and he may see his role as one of protecting teachers from outside influence. He may, however, be strongly influenced by what he believes to be the expectations of others relative to his behavior. The principal may come to feel that it is the responsibility of the supervisor to deal with instructional problems and seek a solution through the supervisor. He may, on the other hand, simply convey to teachers all of the pressures he feels with the hope that the teachers can resolve them.

There are still other alternatives. One of these might involve the principal's conferring with teachers under relatively free and relaxed conditions to consider the varying expectations held by others and to decide on the best approaches to be made. The latter course of action undoubtedly requires a considerable measure of security on the part of the principal in dealing with the superintendent's office, the supervisor and the public. It probably also calls for confidence in his ability to work successfully with his staff in solving problems.

The way in which the principal deals with the many and varied expectations to which he is subjected, as well as the way in which he conceives his own role, is probably influenced by a host of factors.

Prominent among these are his personality, his professional preparation and experience, and the provision which the school system makes for helping to clarify the role expectations held relative to a principal's operation in the instructional area. A school system which uses in-service programs that are explicit on the handling of a problem such as need for improved achievement, might do much to relieve possible confusion concerning central office expectations for the principal's role and thus facilitate his operation. The role in which he is cast as a result of the in-service activity might or might not be in accord with his self-concepts or the expectations which teachers would hold.

The Teacher

It might appear that a teacher's role is more clearly defined than that of any other worker within a school system. However, this is probably true in only a most general sense. While teachers have teaching as their major task, this may be interpreted in many different ways.

Some may expect teachers to be primarily specialists in subject matter which is to be transmitted faithfully to students. Others may desire that teachers should be well educated generally, be especially able in one or more fields, but provide a stimulating environment in which students of many interests and abilities can have experiences which foster growth and development in a wide range of abilities. Raths (20), for example, has listed 13 functions of teaching which in a general sense could be viewed as expectancies for teachers: (a) initiating, managing, directing and taking charge; (b) modifying the curriculum; (c) informing, explaining and showing how; (d) security giving operations; (e) the clarifying process, moving from opinion to fact or truth; (f) group unifying operations; (g) community enriching operations; (h) diagnostic and remedial work; (i) evaluating, recording and reporting; (j) school-wide functions; (k) homeroom aesthetics; (l) professionalizing one's career; (m) functioning as a citizen.

Some persons may see teachers' responsibilities as being limited to the classroom and as centering on the execution of policies laid down by educational authorities. Others may view teachers as having major roles in decision making relative to the content and methods of teaching. Some would view teachers as having major responsibilities for their own in-service education and as giving a substantial portion of time to this. Others would not place high value on this aspect of a teacher's efforts.

Teachers may be operating in an environment where their role is clearly defined, and where they also have opportunities to participate in its formulation. Communication among educational workers may, in such instances, give a sense of belonging and provide for mutual support and assistance.

Conversely, situations frequently exist where the expectations for teachers either are not understood by them or are not accepted. Illustrations have already been cited as to the types of pressures which superintendents, principals or curriculum workers may relay to teachers. There may be peer pressures as well which foster or inhibit the trial of new ideas or the maintenance of high standards of work. Teachers' perceptions of their own teaching functions may be related to their perception of the role of others. Thus a teacher's expectation as to how a principal, curriculum worker or superintendent should act may well influence his own role definition as well as his job satisfactions and morale. The significance of these considerations will be presented later in the chapter.

Of major importance for official leaders are the varying perceptions as to the teacher's role. Each perception of the teacher's role has unique implications for the tasks of leadership. If teaching is seen as requiring creative decisions and broad authority to decide on content, methodology and the organization of learning activities, certain kinds of leadership behavior appear to be required; for example, the maintenance of a secure and supportive environment, the introduction of new ways of teaching, and the provision of opportunities for participation and responsibility.

If teachers are viewed as having broad professional obligations beyond the classroom in work with parents, with boards of education and with lay advisory groups, official leadership again has a role in providing the kinds of opportunities which will make such participation satisfying and profitable. If teachers are seen as participants in policy formation, official leadership has unique responsibilities in respect to communicating the kinds of information which will help to make that participation informed and to providing opportunities to assume such responsibilities and to test the consequences of actions taken. Be it promotion policies, report cards, or the establishment of an over-all framework for a program on which a staff group is working, many understandings and skills are necessary for effective involvement.

Teachers' perceptions of their own teaching and nonteaching functions, as well as their perceptions of the roles of various leadership personnel, are important facts which might well influence official leadership. These perceptions result from long experience and their modification through new experience must undoubtedly precede any change in role or change in the perception of others. This is not to imply that official leadership should endeavor to manipulate teachers and their role concepts. It seems reasonable, however, that leaders will continuously help all professional staff members to reassess roles in terms of emerging evidence as to the nature of learners, the demands being made upon the schools, the capabilities of individual staff members and of the school organization, and the evidence which can be gathered as to the productivity of the educational program in terms of changes in learners.

Other Positions

There are other professional school workers such as superintendents, guidance workers, department heads, business managers and research directors. Each has specialized functions. However, a sufficient number of positions have probably been cited to suggest the general nature of role expectations and some of the many ways in which expectations from various sources are interrelated.

It may be helpful to summarize these illustrations by making a few observations about the nature of role expectations and conflicts. The holder of any position may encounter role expectations from several sources. Among these are the following: (a) the stated job description which defines his role or roles in terms of functions if not in terms of specific behaviors; (b) his own concept of what his role should be; (c) one or more superiors in the authority structure who have expectations relative to one or more of his roles; (d) peers or holders of comparable or related positions; (e) subordinates in the authority structure; (f) students in the educational institution; (g) parents of students and members of the community having an interest in the school; and (h) professional colleagues in other educational organizations.

Since diverse or conflicting expectations have detrimental consequences because of their detrimental effect on morale and on the general effectiveness of the school system, it may be well to explore more fully some of the reasons for this diversity.

Reasons for Diversity in Expectations

As suggested in earlier illustrations all official leaders including teachers are subject to a great variety of expectations. The formal expectations, such as might be revealed by a job description, may be clear and precise. Often, however, they are limited in scope and do not indicate the specific skills called for or the way in which these skills should be executed. Some of these expectations may be written into law or into board of education rules and policies. While these may be somewhat standard from state to state, there is often considerable variation in the formal expectations for a particular position from community to community.

Major Reference Points

The positions of curriculum worker, principal and teacher often have less in the way of written formal expectations than one would find for superintendents. Also, in the case of these positions there probably is greater variation in role definition from community to community. With increased professionalization and preparation for various positions there appears to be increased clarity as to the formal expectations. Often the position of curriculum worker is less well defined than are those of principal and teacher.

As already indicated informal expectations of many kinds may influence role behavior. Holders of other positions within a school system as well as one's peers may have a profound influence in determining a position holder's own role expectations. The nature of the influence will vary, of course, with the individual and with the kind of situation within which he is operating. Some of the reasons for this differential in impact will be considered later.

Groups outside a system may also have role expectations which will influence the individual leader or teacher in the performance of his tasks. Lay citizens have been mentioned, but the influence of professional organizations, of peers in neighboring school systems, of staff members of universities in which individuals received their preparation, and even of authorities and writers in the professional field are but some of the many influences which may operate on a particular individual.

A hypothetical norm often comes to be accepted as characterizing "good" professional behavior. There may be clear distinctions, however, between the actual and the ideal expectations to further complicate the situation.

Self-expectations and expectations held for others as to role behavior are attributable to many influences. The evidence is not entirely clear as to how these operate. A few illustrative influences, classified as having a social orientation or an individual or personal orientation, may assist in clarifying their nature.

Socially Oriented Reasons

1. The diverse nature of our people, variations among educational institutions, rapidity of change and the emergence of one crisis after another are illustrative of some of the general characteristics of the life we live. These factors lead to instability and divergence in the perceptions held by individuals relative to the role of specific position holders. Mobility of people generally, as well as of official leaders and teachers in schools, undoubtedly adds to the confusion as to expectations. Implied also is the fact that role expectations have a time dimension. New knowledge or changed beliefs may indicate new role expectations. A period of national crises may cause many to see a need for greater uniformity or for increased conformity to stated expectations. Formerly accepted expectations may be questioned or become suspect. Critics of the school system may question existing role expectations and call for new ones. (See Gross, Mason, and McEachern, 13:207-208, on heterogeneity and lack of consensus.)

2. It is generally assumed that people like to have leaders who are able to perform the work of those who are led. In a complex organization such as a school with many kinds of specialists involved, this is an impossible expectation. Nevertheless, it is probably a factor in the formulation of expectations.

3. Previous experience which staff members may have had with official school leaders or teachers is probably a conditioning influence which may result in the setting of either high or low expectations (7). The behavior of others comes to be accepted as a desirable norm. This basis for expectations is frequently noticed when a shift is made from a well-liked or well-accepted leader to a new personality. It possibly is related to certain characteristics of the holder of the expectations such as the variety of experience with leaders, the rigidity of personality, or the degree of involvement with or attachment to a particular leader.

4. The general, traditional, or idealized expectation of a leader in a particular culture or subgroup may influence the expectation or perceptions as to how a leader should behave. The tradition of authori-

tarian leadership in business and the military, for instance, is often carried over to education. Frequently the cultural stereotype of a leader is that of one who master-minds situations and through strong action works out solutions. He is a person of quick and independent decision who has a knack for coming up with a "right" or widely acceptable answer. The stereotype held may, of course, be very different. Whatever view may be held as being typical of general leadership behavior may well color expectation for school leaders. Halpin (14:28) has compared the leader behavior and leadership ideology of educational administrators and aircraft commanders. He identified differences which were presumed to be associated with the institutional setting within which the two groups of leaders operated.

5. Statements made by a position holder as to what he will do or as to how certain activities should be carried out may stimulate the development of expectations. Thus the leader who speaks for democracy in administration may be expected to demonstrate democratic behavior.

6. Organizational patterns may well influence the perceptions people have as to the roles which position holders should play. Thus expectations may be related to the location of a position in the hierarchy or to the salary level assigned to a position. This problem appears to be a persistent and noticeable one in respect to salary differentials between principals and curriculum workers.

A changing structure within the school system, a change in the holder of a leadership position or the introduction of a new position is often unsettling in that it may call for a redefinition of roles on the part of others. The introduction of a curriculum worker where there has been none before may not only create problems in the definition of this individual's role, but it may also necessitate a rethinking of responsibilities of the superintendent, of principals, and of teachers.

It has become fashionable to criticize traditional plans of organization such as the line and staff arrangement or to confuse authority with an authoritarian method of operating. Frequently such ideas lead to a rejection of earlier arrangements and a failure to replace them with new concepts as to organization and methods of operation. The results may be unsettling in respect to role definitions.

7. Within a school system there frequently are differences among leadership personnel and among teachers with respect to the purpose of leadership, the theory of leadership or the role expectations held for the occupants of various positions. There may be a consequent

lack of clarity as to kinds of loyalty expected within the administrative hierarchy. Conflicts may result from differing interpretations and applications of such concepts as status, responsibility, authority, or permissiveness.

8. The degree of specialization of leadership personnel may create problems in staff members' relationships as well as in presenting something of a unified approach to the teaching staff. Coordination of roles may become especially serious when specialization is extreme.

9. The current emphasis on human relations, emerging leadership and cooperative procedures has probably unsettled the thinking of many as to how official leaders and teachers should operate not only in group situations but also in a variety of staff relationships. The current language in vogue may appear to question previous ways of working. Individuals within the system may be experimenting with new techniques of group work which attract enough attention, if not favorable acclaim, to cause some to question their own "up-to-dateness" or their own harmony with the "best" or most recent ideas.

These changing conceptions of leadership and group work have resulted in greater staff participation and increased awareness of differences in leadership styles. The emphasis on staff participation and on staff evaluation of group activities has undoubtedly served to make staff expectations more visible and hence in some instances more disturbing to official leaders.

10. While specific positions tend to have a core of expectations common to schools in general, there are significantly varying expectations that are a function of the local school and community. Getzels and Guba (12) have demonstrated this for teachers.

Individually Oriented Reasons

1. Basic personality patterns and self-concepts undoubtedly have much to do with self-expectations as to roles as well as to expectations for roles which others should take (7). For example, the basic sense of security or self-confidence which a person possesses may well influence self-expectations or expectations of others. An individual may develop a very strongly controlling idea such as a desire to be absolutely consistent. Such attributes can have strong impact on his role perceptions. The general emotional state of an individual at a particular time may be an important related condition. Getzels and Guba (12) have shown that differential reactions among teachers in the extent of their liability to role conflict in the teaching situation are

systematically and meaningfully related to certain personal characteristics of the teachers.

Sachs (21) explored flexibility and rigidity in the role perceptions of elementary school administrators and raised useful questions for further study. Wilcox (26) has presented very provocative findings on the relation of authoritarianism among elementary and secondary school teachers and their expectancy of supervisors and principals.

Many personal factors are probably related to the perceptions held. The emotional needs of an individual (7), the extent of personal identification with the leader and similar factors are probable significant influences. These characteristics of the perceiver may, of course, be closely related to characteristics of the leader, including the ideals or values he expresses, his sensitivity to groups, or even his understanding of practical situations.

Conditions such as those already cited may find expression in strictly professional areas. A leader may believe himself to be inadequate in leading meetings. Consequently he may hold as few meetings as possible, secure others to head them or become an enthusiast for training in group procedures. Obviously, self-perceptions may have great consequence for roles which an individual actually carries (4).

2. Inadequate or inappropriate preparation may result in an official leader's being unable to operate as effectively as he might in defining his own role or in working with others cooperatively to define it. He may thus be unaware of possible alternatives open to him or of the many roles which he might play in discharging the general responsibility assigned to him. In a sense he is unprepared to handle the problems he encounters. He may lack the specific preparation needed to carry certain kinds of responsibilities. In some instances preparation may be so specialized or narrow that the holder of a position may find it difficult to relate to the holders of other positions or to the performers of other roles.

3. The fact that an official leader often has several roles to play may confuse him as well as others. He may not distinguish clearly, for example, between his helping role and his task accomplishment role. Some roles may be more closely related to the work of teachers than are others and may actually call for very different skills and very different ways of operating.

4. Expectation may be a function of multiple position occupancy (13:323f). A teacher may hold a different expectation for a supervisor who is a man rather than a woman or old rather than young. The

standards applied to a person by others may be in part a function of the number of different positions the person is perceived as simultaneously occupying. Wispe (27) has reported a related study based on a sociometric analysis of conflicting role expectancies. He revealed the conflict in expectancies for a successful insurance salesman and a friend.

5. The extent to which official leaders are perceived as acting in harmony with expectation is apparently related to the degree of satisfaction of teachers with the teaching situation (2). Similarly teacher evaluation of the leadership given by an administrative or supervising officer is closely related to the extent of teachers' satisfaction in working in a given school system (7).

6. An individual's perception of others' expectations may have a strong influence on his role behavior. The curriculum director's perception of the superintendent's wishes, or the principal's perception of community expectations, may be powerful influences (4). Important here is the extent of concern which an individual has for the expectations of the other individual or group (3).

7. An individual's perception of the effectiveness of an official leader may be closely related to the expectation he holds as to the role the official leader should assume (4, 7).

Consequences of Role Conflict and Confusion

The consequences of role conflict are not always easy to understand. A growing body of evidence supports the belief that they affect the functioning of individuals, as well as the success of a school or school system, in very profound ways. It is obvious, of course, that conflict, disagreement, misunderstanding and confusion as to who should do what have serious influences upon the operation of any organization. Their impact on individuals has also been demonstrated.

In analyzing consequences of role conflict, it is helpful to distinguish between the extent of a role conflict in a given organization or situation and the impact of the conflict on the position holder. In the studies reported, the impact of role conflicts on individuals represents the usual approach to studying the problem. The following paragraphs are descriptive of some of the major ways in which an individual may perceive the various expectations held for him.

1. Harmonious and in general agreement. In such instances, the perceived expectations would be mutually supporting.

2. Inharmonious and divergent in respect to specific roles. There may be two or more expectations for a single role which are incompatible.

3. Incompatible in respect to the expectations for two or more roles which the individual may have. These may be multiple roles within the educational organization or a combination of roles, one or more being in the organization and one or more being outside. Thus a person might have two roles, one as a teacher and another as a mother. The expectations for one role might conflict with those for the other.

4. Intense or mild. Expectations may be seen as clearly or strongly held or as only mildly approving or disapproving.

5. Legitimate or illegitimate in terms of the individual's own role concepts. An individual may view an expectation as being very reasonable and proper, or as being unreasonable and inappropriate.

6. Accompanied or unaccompanied by sanctions of lesser or greater intensity. Expectations may carry with them limited or substantial rewards for fulfillment, or more or less serious penalties for failure to comply.

A number of studies, reported in recent years, have sought to determine the consequences of role conflict. A number of these will be cited to reveal the directions which these explorations have taken.

Getzels and Guba (10) in a study of role conflict and effectiveness of officer-instructors at the Air Command and Staff School of Air University reported that individuals experiencing conflict are also the relatively ineffective ones. Further, instructors teaching against their wishes, interests and felt competencies were less tolerant of situational pressures of the kind described in their role conflict inventories. In another study of 166 elementary and secondary teachers, Getzels and Guba (12) found that the existence of role conflicts was evidence that the teacher's role was imperfectly integrated with other roles. The consequence of role conflict was frustration for the individual teacher and ineffectiveness for the educational institution.

Chase (7), in summarizing studies made at the Midwest Administration Center, Cooperative Program in Educational Administration, and elsewhere, indicated that there is an exceedingly close relationship between teachers' evaluations of the leadership given by administrative and supervisory officers and the extent of their satisfaction in working in a given school or school system. Bidwell (2) reported similar findings. The convergence of teachers' role expectations toward the administrator and their perceptions of his behavior was accompanied by an expression by these teachers of satisfaction with the teaching situation. Divergence of teachers' role expectations toward the administrator and their perceptions of his behavior was accompanied by an expression of dissatisfaction by these teachers.

Seeman (23) in focusing on superintendents in 26 Ohio communities described how they frequently found themselves in ambivalent positions because of role conflicts. Gross, Mason, and McEachern (13) have shown that superintendents exposed to role conflicts experienced lower job satisfaction than those not exposed to role conflict.

Clarification of Role Perceptions and the Resolution of Role Conflicts

If the undesirable consequences of role conflicts and confusions for educators and for schools are accepted, one further problem remains. What means are available to resolve conflicts or to minimize their influence? Getzels and Guba (11) in their analysis of social behavior and the administrative process make the following statement:

> The unique task of administration, at least with respect to staff relations, is just this: to integrate the demands of the institution and the demands of the staff members in a way that is at once organizationally productive and individually fulfilling.

They then go on to discuss various leadership styles and point out that the ". . . task of the administrator seeking to develop high morale is the maintenance of reasonable levels of agreement among expectations, needs, and goals" (11:440).

Chase (7), after analyzing teachers' expectations with respect to the roles of leaders, pointed out the need to understand the expectations of teachers in order to bring about effective group action.

> Since basic and cherished values are involved, and the persons concerned may feel their security threatened, attempts to change expectations are likely to arouse resistance and some hostility. The administrator must be reconciled, therefore, to a process of re-education requiring a long period of time.

Chase has proposed several procedures for discovering role expectations as well as methods for modifying them. In the latter connection he suggested (a) group definition of aims and objectives, (b) cooperative planning and solution of problems, and (c) group discussion of how principals and other supervisory officers can be most helpful.

Carroll (6) stressed the significance of role concept development in future administrators and suggested learning experiences to help them develop their role concepts. These included: (a) consideration of mutual teacher-administrative school problems, (b) relevant case studies, (c) socio-dramas, (d) self-analysis and the writing of descriptions of good administrators, and (e) internship experiences.

Because the resolution of role conflicts and the clarification of role perceptions are important to both morale and productivity of all staff members, they may well receive continuing attention within school systems. Official leadership teams within a school system, by taking thought, can do much to prevent conflicting demands upon staff members. Through careful organization and administrative planning, roles can be clarified. Several approaches for dealing with the problem are available. A few of these can be illustrated.

1. Exploration of role expectations at time of initial employment. In some school systems regular provision is made for carefully exploring role expectations of and for all staff members prior to employment. This is done through a series of interviews in which candidates are introduced as thoroughly as possible to their prospective positions and in which their role expectations are explored. Various staff members with whom the prospective employee will be associated are also given, in face-to-face contacts, opportunities to indicate their expectations. This practice permits some advance clarification and an exploration of areas of agreement and disagreement.

In one community a superintendent of schools and his assistant explored their own and others' expectations concerning the position of director of instruction. The position was not a new one, so they were able to consult with the retiring director of instruction concerning (a) his perception of the position as he believed it currently to be, and (b) his perception of need for change in the director of instruction's role. The superintendent and his assistant then stated their own beliefs concerning the functions a new director of instruction could serve best. In the process of interviewing the first candidates who applied for the position, they gathered and noted these candidates' expectations concerning the role of the director of instruction. By combining these differing perceptions and expectations into a complex of job requirements, they were able to communicate to the board of education a set of proposed requirements.

2. Group discussion to clarify purposes and roles. Awareness of the possibility of role conflicts suggests that such conflicts may be prevented

by discussion at the appropriate time, preferably before problems have developed.

In one school system, a director of guidance was employed for the first time to take charge of a kindergarten-through-twelfth-grade guidance program. The superintendent recognized that several persons in the school system were already performing guidance functions: principals, part-time counselors in secondary schools, librarians, nurses and, of course, teachers. He assembled representatives of all staff groups which could possibly be concerned with guidance, including office secretaries. These representatives worked with the superintendent and the new director in delineating roles for each of the staff groups. The respective roles were stated in writing. They served as a helpful tension-preventing guide, which was modified as occasion demanded, during several years of the director's tenure.

Agreements during discussion can be made impossible in the presence of many kinds of insecurity or personality problems. Also, discussion usually needs to be supplemented by experience and a consideration of the problems of day-to-day operation. However, such discussion can be helpful.

3. Recognition of differences among official leaders in perceptions held and in the means used to discharge leadership responsibilities. Differences among official leaders in their styles of operation, in their values, or in their concept of role responsibility are frequently sources of problems. If these differences can be recognized, accepted, and a plan of action developed, difficulties can often be reduced or eliminated.

An example of this is to be found in the case of a newly appointed helping teacher who came into conflict with a veteran reading consultant because the helping teacher had begun to assist elementary school teachers with grouping and materials in reading. The director of instruction met with the two specialists involved in the conflict. He asked each specialist to state her perception of her own function with respect to reading, as well as her view of any other areas of present or potential conflict. As the two staff members talked about their perceptions of their distinctly different roles, they found their own grounds for agreement, with little help from the director of instruction. They seemed to find satisfaction in recognizing their differences in perception, and then in testing these perceptions against reality. They succeeded in citing instances in which overlapping efforts to help teachers had confused the teachers. At their second and third meetings, they agreed on specific actions concerning instruction in reading which each would take, and they then role-played the methods they would use in referring teachers from specialist to specialist for assistance.

Summary

This chapter has tried to detail the importance of role expectancies as they relate to the provision of leadership in instructional programs. The perceptions that staff members throughout a school or school system have of their roles and of the roles of others are of great significance for the effectiveness of an educational program and for the morale and efficiency of a staff group. Careful and thoughtful action on the part of leadership can do much to reduce the conflict and confusion relative to role expectancies which appear to be a very natural accompaniment of the operations within any complex organization such as a modern school system.

Bibliography

1. Berkowitz, Leonard. "Sharing Leadership in Small Decision-Making Groups." *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* 48:231-38; April 1953.
2. Bidwell, C. E. "The Administrative Role and Satisfaction in Teaching." *Journal of Educational Sociology* 29:41-47; September 1955.
3. Brookover, W. B. "Research on Teacher and Administrator Roles." *Journal of Educational Sociology* 29:2-13; September 1955.
4. Brown, H. L., Jr.; Russell Clark; and Howard R. Strong. *An Analysis of Lay and Professional Attitudes Toward the High School Principalship.* Unpublished Ed.D. project. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1955.
5. Burchard, Waldo W. "Role Conflicts in Military Chaplains." *American Sociological Review* [illegible]:528-35; October 1954.
6. Carroll, K. M. "Role-Concept Development in Future Administrators." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 42:496-501; December 1956.
7. Chase, F. S. "How to Meet Teachers' Expectation of Leadership." *Administrator's Notebook,* Vol. 1, No. 9; April 1953.
8. Davis, F. James. "Conception of Official Leaders' Roles in the Air Force." *Social Forces* 32:253-58; March 1954.
9. Gerard, H. B. "Some Effects of Status, Role Clarity, and Group Goal Clarity Upon the Individual's Relations to Group Process." *Journal of Personality* 25:475-88; June 1957.

10. Getzels, J. W., and E. G. Guba. "Role, Role Conflicts, and Effectiveness." *American Sociological Review* 19:164-75; April 1954.
11. Getzels, J. W., and E. G. Guba. "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process." *School Review* 65:423-41; Winter 1957. Copyright 1957 by the University of Chicago.
12. Getzels, J. W., and E. G. Guba. "Structure of Roles and Role Conflict in the Teaching Situation." *Journal of Educational Sociology* 29:30-40; September 1955.
13. Gross, Neal; Ward S. Mason; and Alexander W. McEachern. *Explorations in Role Analysis.* New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1958. 379 p.
14. Halpin, A. W. "Leader Behavior and Leadership Ideology of Educational Administrators." *Harvard Education Review,* Vol. 25, No. 1; Winter 1955. p. 18-32.
15. Hemphill, J. K. "Relation Between the Size of the Group and the Behavior of Superior Leaders." *Journal of Social Psychology* 32:11-23; August 1950.
16. Holden, Ruby Mae. "Relationship Between Perceived Leadership, Perceptions of the Ideal, and Group Productivity in Small Classroom Groups." *Dissertation Abstracts* 14:1994; 1954.
17. Medalia, Nahum Z. "Unit Size and Leadership Perception." *Sociometry* 17:64-67; February 1954.
18. Miles, Matthew B. "Human Relations in Cooperative Research." *Research for Curriculum Improvement.* 1957 Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, a department of the National Education Association, 1957. Chapter 8.
19. Mishler, Elliot G. "Personality Characteristics and the Resolution of Role Conflicts." *Public Opinion Quarterly* 17:115-35; Spring 1953.
20. Raths, Louis E. "What Is Teaching?" *Educational Leadership* 13: 146-49; December 1955.
21. Sachs, B. M. "Flexibility and Rigidity in the Role Perception of Selected Administrators with Regard to Vocation." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 42:46-53; January 1956.
22. Scott, Ellis L. "Leadership and Perception of Organization." *Ohio State University Studies, Bureau Business Research Monograph No. 82.* 1956. 122 p.
23. Seeman, Melvin. "Role Conflict and Ambivalence in Leadership." *American Sociological Review* 18:373-80; August 1953.
24. Stouffer, S. A., and J. Toby. "Role Conflict and Personality." *American Journal of Sociology* 56:395-407; March 1951.

25. STOUFFER, SAMUEL A. "An Analysis of Conflicting Social Norms." *American Sociological Review* 17:707-17; December 1949.

26. WILCOX, R. T. "Authoritarianism and Educators' Expectations of Leadership." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 43:418-28; November 1957.

27. WISPE, LAUREN G. "A Sociometric Analysis of Conflicting Role Expectancies." *American Journal of Sociology* 61:134-37; September 1955.

CHAPTER FOUR

EDUCATIONAL LEADERS IN ACTION

IN THE preceding chapters, characteristics of the evolving American society and various concepts of leadership have been analyzed. These chapters have also indicated the need for a type of educational leadership somewhat unique to the American scene. The implications of these earlier chapters are particularly significant for leaders seeking to improve instruction.

Rapid changes in society call for the acceleration of change in social institutions. Such changes need to be reflected in the curriculums of schools and institutions of higher learning. To bring about these curricular changes requires effective leadership.

The leadership required to bring about constructive changes in the instructional programs of our schools must concern itself with the resolution of apparent differences in values and goals among those who make decisions. It must exercise itself in organizational patterns which encourage the interest and concern of those affected by the decisions. It must also seek progressively better ways for involving in evaluation and decision-making processes those whose firsthand knowledge of school situations is requisite to assure that the decisions made are the best possible for children and for society.

Some Convictions Regarding Instructional Improvement

Some of the official school leaders have already been identified. The effects of their self-perceptions have been noted. Perceptions of their roles held by others have been explored. We shall look at their roles in more detail later in this chapter. In this chapter we are influenced by the following convictions regarding the nature of instructional improvement:

1. Improvement of instruction results from the improvement in performance of people who affect the learning situation. These people are supervisors, administrators, board members, consultants, teachers, parents and the children and youth.

2. Improvement in the performance of people results from changes in perceptions, i.e., in their perceptions of the situation, of other people, of self and related functions, of obstacles to change and of the probable effects of change. Such modifications in perception provide a stimulus that is frequently necessary to overcome the inertia of status quo.

3. The direction of improved behavior as differentiated from mere change is toward greater self-realization, toward greater creativity, toward greater accord with prized societal values and toward greater harmony with the nature of human growth and the learning process.

4. Human beings desire to improve, but the *need* for improvement and the *nature* of improvement are determined by their own perceptions.

5. Leadership promotes improvement by creating situations through which existing perceptions are critically analyzed, clarified and extended; by providing opportunities for people to try out new ways of doing; by helping to modify obstacles to behavior change; by helping to provide necessary resources to facilitate change; and by helping to assure that satisfactions result from desirable modifications in behavior.

6. Leadership reinforces changes in people by helping them to arrive at new institutional arrangements including organization, provision for essential resources, and the rearranging of roles and relationships.

Some Educational Leadership Tasks

The nature of the leadership tasks which are related to instructional improvement are many and varied. The following major tasks of the educational leader have been described in Chapter Two:

1. To help the people of the school community define their educational goals and objectives
2. To facilitate the teaching-learning process—develop greater effectiveness in teaching
3. To build a productive organizational unit
4. To create a climate for growth and the emergence of leadership
5. To provide adequate resources for effective teaching.

In this chapter, we shall look at each of these tasks in the light of some of the means through which educators have sought their achievement. In doing so, it will be observed that the accomplishment of more than one of these tasks will frequently be inherent in the same activity.

In a later section of this chapter, under the heading "Official Leadership Roles and Responsibilities in Instructional Improvement," our attention will be focused on specific educational leaders who must assume primary responsibility for such task accomplishment.

Accomplishing Educational Leadership Tasks

People are continuously reviewing and revising their goals as new demands of the culture and of their personal lives direct. One of the outcomes is the great variation in people's values already noted in Chapter Two.

Helping People of the School Community Define Their Educational Goals and Objectives

Much variation and apparent confusion exist in the values held by people and expounded as the position of influence groups which they compose. Nevertheless, the general framework of values as reflected in society's institutions continues to have considerable stability. In fact, the stability of social institutions such as the schools is viewed with alarm by many people. Changes in the needs of society must, of course, be accompanied by institutional changes. An important task of those employed to administer the schools is that of helping the people of the school community to identify clearly what they want accomplished through the instructional programs. This responsibility is a continuing one which entails an early anticipation of changing needs and the use of rational processes of appraisal and planning, rather than expedient submission to emotional pressures.

If this has not already been done, it is usually helpful for patrons and professionals in each community to define and record the purposes of their schools and the goals they expect them to attain. Once accomplished in basic form, necessary concerted action is more possible, and the reviewing and revising of goals to accommodate to further changes become a part of ongoing operational processes.

A frequently occurring type of opportunity for community goal-setting exists when the decision is made to conduct a formal evaluation of a school program. Whether it is an elementary school, a junior high school, a senior high school, or the total school system, the evaluation is customarily based on a statement of expectations. The opportunity to involve the community and the teaching staff in formulating this statement is too often neglected. If too few people are involved or too much emphasis is placed on speed, important outcomes of the undertaking may be lost. Recognizing that such outcomes may go beyond the value of the statement of goals, one school administration involved teachers, students, parents and other members of the community in goal-setting discussions held over a two-year period. Of the many questions posed, the following are representative:

1. To what degree should a community support public education?
2. What individuals should be excluded from the public schools?
3. What conflict of values exists between academic and non-academic courses?
4. In their school programs, have our students included courses consistent with their objectives and abilities?
5. Have the achievements of our students come up to our expectations both in school and after leaving school?
6. What present circumstances limit the full realization of a better instructional program?

Discussion groups to consider these issues were structured with representation from staff, community, and student groups. Lengthy exchanges of opinions were interspersed with statements and presentation of data by local school officials and outside consultants provided on request of the board of education. Formulation of written conclusions in the discussion groups was purposely postponed until near unanimity was reached. At the end of over one and a half years of such deliberation, statements from the various groups were combined by a representative committee. After further refinement and resolution of minor disagreements, the combined statement of goals and objectives was adopted by the entire group. It was then presented to the superintendent and board of education for their future guidance. Added to its value as a statement of hopes and aspirations for the instructional program was the recognition that only the community as a whole, through its taxing and appropriating processes, could supply the means for achieving the goals. Wide publicity was given to this statement through the newspapers of the community and copies were placed in school and public libraries.

Little public recognition was given to a second significant statement from participants in the study. This document expressed the great personal satisfactions of those who participated and who pledged their support to the administration in achieving better schools.

A major strength of activities such as that just described lies in the extensive participation of both professional school people and others from the school and community. Through such involvement a more representative sampling of data, including feelings and attitudes, can be considered in reaching conclusions. A second strength is inherent in the amount of time taken in reaching the decisions. From the long-term view of bringing about the actual improvement contemplated in a written statement of objectives, the changes in the people involved must be seen as of equal or greater importance than the more tangible printed document. Wise official leaders recognize that modifications in perceptions often take place slowly, and that the resolution of differences of opinion frequently is a time-consuming process.

There is no one best way for communities to organize to define the educational goals and objectives of their schools. Each community will find need for differences in planning and organization which are related to the community's own unique nature and present relationships with its schools. Some may make use of existing community councils or may establish citizens advisory committees on specific problems of the schools. Others may create curriculum councils as continuing deliberative bodies in the school's organizational structure. Some will use less formal means for interpreting the school's instructional program and its needs to the community and for obtaining representative samplings of the community's expectations concerning its schools. Whatever the particular design, experience seems to indicate certain guiding principles which official leaders need to consider and which include the following:

1. Setting goals should involve those for whom objectives are set and those responsible for goal seeking.

2. School appraisal and the revision of educational goals should be

a continuous process paced to the rate of change occurring in the community and in the broader society served by the schools.

3. Appraisal and goal-setting processes should be deliberately designed to recognize that perceptual changes are among the desired outcomes.

4. The results of community appraisal and goal-setting efforts should be recorded, organized so as to be easily accessible, and made available to all members of the community.

5. Official leaders are responsible for attempting to translate statements of aspiration into operational procedures and program needs and for relating new objectives to existing programs.

Statements of goals provide reference points and directional guides for teachers and pupils and for those who assist them. However, they cannot guarantee their attainment. The identification of objectives must be followed by efforts to facilitate the teaching-learning process through which the goals of the schools ultimately are realized. The stimulation and promotion of such efforts is another important leadership task.

Facilitating the Teaching-Learning Process—Developing Greater Effectiveness in Teaching

Those who work for the improvement of instruction know that such improvement requires participation by teachers, principals and others who are in daily contact with children. Instructional improvement is often the aim of central office personnel when they distribute printed bulletins, courses of study, and other duplicated statements. Although it is assumed that these directives are automatically carried out, investigation discloses that they often actually have very little influence on teaching-learning processes.

Many official leaders now believe that the planning, carrying out of plans, the evaluation of results, and the revision of plans at the individual building level comprise essential elements of any effective program for instructional improvement. In large school systems, coordination of local building efforts is necessary. The major responsibility of the central staff is to provide services to the individual building staff. In addition to coordination, consultant services, material resources, in-service education opportunities, and expert advisory assistance by university or other outside personnel may be provided.

In one school, a junior-senior high school, the teachers of foreign languages worked together to improve the quality of instruction in this field. Feeling the need for more objective data, the teachers called on the system's guidance supervisor for help. A standardized test was selected and administered and pupil performance was analyzed in terms of local expectations and national norms. The program of the teachers and the rationale of the test were compared. At the end of the year a foreign language specialist was added to the supervisory staff to serve all secondary schools. This specialist worked with the staff in a continuing examination of the program. The other schools of the system became involved in the study, and all pupils were tested at the end of the next year. With more data on which to base conclusions, the study was continued.

During the summer of the second year a workshop in modern foreign language instruction was offered to the teachers. Both the specialist and a practicing authority in the field worked to help the teachers plan for the next year. As a result of studying and practicing newer techniques oriented to the aural-oral approach, the teachers made great progress. The use of tape recorders and records was a part of the daily work. Repertories of taped lessons developed in the summer were extended. Plans for a foreign language laboratory were drawn up, new tests to fit the program were examined, and other measures were considered. This combination of initiative from the local school, plus central office provision of the resources of the guidance and research staff and of a specialist and coordinating person, with reinforcement from other local units and broadened opportunity for improvement and change, represents a well-conducted activity for the developing of greater effectiveness in teaching.

Several difficulties are frequently encountered in activities of this kind. Staff members differ in many ways: in the skills they have acquired, in the cluster of attitudes that they hold, in the ease with which they learn and in the degree of security they possess. These and other variations cause them to accept changed patterns of teaching quite differently. In the previous example, the facility or lack of facility with which new skills were acquired in learning to use the equipment, in preparing and using taped lessons and in developing and applying new evaluative techniques caused teachers to experience varying degrees of concern. Here, a vital role of official leadership is that of reassuring those for whom change is more difficult and of helping them to build the security necessary to modify practices.

In another school, a mathematics supervisor, aware of the changes being recommended in the classical mathematics sequence, studied the recommendations of national groups, research organizations and experimental programs conducted by universities. In discussing these developments with teachers in the school system, he identified those who were interested enough to move into action. A specially designed course oriented to the new mathematics organization and to the content of the newer mathematics curriculum was included as a summer offering. A local university provided a mathematics professor and offered credit for the experience. The school board provided an honorarium for the teacher participants and a community scholarship fund provided tuition and books. For other interested teachers, summer scholarships and academic year scholarships were obtained.

The structure of a basic mathematics course was changed and pilot studies initiated. The specialist and several other teachers taught the courses. These participants planned together each week during the year. The number of teachers involved increased, other special courses for teacher improvement were designed, more scholarships were offered and more new courses to be taught in the schools were developed until the elementary, junior high school and senior high school programs had all become a part of the study. The professional staff, the mathematics program and the students' mathematics experiences improved. This sequence of exchange of ideas, change in orientation, increase in competence, involvement of more and more of the staff, and provision of resources as needed, took place in one school system. It has taken place in essentially the same way on a state-wide basis in at least one state.

The examples cited were selected for inclusion here because they illustrate principles developed in Chapter Two. In them, we see members of the professional staff accepting the improvement of instructional processes as their problem. We note that evaluation and change are initiated among those who are interested and willing to participate in pilot programs. The importance of support by administrators and other teachers as well as by patrons has been reaffirmed.

Many school systems have recognized the need for regular opportunities for teachers, supervisors and administrators to come together to identify their concerns, to clarify their thinking, and to work out action conclusions related to teaching-learning processes. They have also recognized the need for making available the resources through which professional understandings and skills may be developed as need is felt by individual people. Both types of opportunity are represented in the program conducted in one community by an “in-service education committee" composed of teachers, principals, consultants and a representative of the superintendent's immediate staff. The following table shows how activities planned by this committee spanned the whole year.

Activity	*Time*	*Topics*	*Attendance*	*Leadership*
Fall Weekend Camp Workshop	Late November	"Evaluating Instruction" (example)	Optional for teachers, supervisors and administrators	Local with university consultants, parents, and high school students
Spring Conference	Early March (on a school day)	"Developing Our Human Resources" (example)	Required for all professional personnel	Local with university and community consultants
Spring Professional Growth Workshops	Post-school term in June	1. "Production of Audio-Visual Teaching Aids" 2. "Problems of Children" (examples)	Optional for teachers and principals	Local with supervisors and psychologist
Midsummer Workshop	Mid-August	"Administrative and Supervisory Problems"	Optional for administrators, supervisors and interested teachers	Local with university and outside public school consultants.

It is important to recognize that such "opportunities" may exist without affecting appreciably the learning of children and youth—the unique purpose of all such efforts. If broad staff representation is included in planning, however, then the needs of the staff for professional growth will be more likely to receive necessary consideration. In addition, mechanisms should be established whereby conclusions reached through such study procedures may be carried into official channels for further consideration and action. At all times, such in-service education activities must be seen in the perspective of the teaching-learning situations in the schools.

Activities like those cited suggest other generalizations which may be helpful in developing instructional improvement programs. Among them are the following:

1. Since instruction can only be improved at the individual school and classroom level, productivity of all activities for instructional improvement must be assessed in terms of their effects at these levels.

2. Time demands on teachers must not be excessive; however, the satisfactions of accomplishments closely related to interests often free reserve energies rather than cause fatigue.

3. Efforts to increase teaching effectiveness which are focused on appraisal, experimentation, or action research are proving to be promising approaches.

Building a Productive Organizational Unit

Building a productive organization which makes effective use of all available resources in promoting the best possible teaching and learning is a task of official leaders which is of paramount importance. Values should determine the objectives toward which an enterprise is oriented, should guide the action toward these objectives and should serve as criteria for evaluating the extent to which the objectives are being realized. But values must be translated into action patterns and relationships and into physical arrangements through which person to person communicating and relating of energies can take place. The nature of the mechanics and arrangements should be in harmony with the objectives to be achieved.

Delineating responsibilities--An organizational pattern concerned with providing leadership for the improvement of instruction ought to be based on a clear delineation of the responsibilities that official leaders have for providing leadership and for utilizing the leadership of others. When many people are contributing leadership, ways of using differing capacities constructively need to be established. As various leaders carry out their responsibilities, conflicts in philosophy, in perception of role, in personality, and in methods of operation often emerge. The reconciliation of these differences is imperative if the best interests of children are to be served. Ease of contact, opportunities for exchange of thinking and an emphasis on the cooperative planning of services to be rendered are factors which help overcome such conflicts.

In one school system the administrative and supervisory staff structure was modified after intensive inquiry by a group composed of board of education members, the superintendent, his assistants, supervisors, principals and teachers. After preliminary study, a personnel consultant was employed. The consultant's recommendations were utilized in further analysis. This study had been preceded by other inquiries made by many groups into organizational relationships within building units, between school levels, between personnel employed for different purposes, and between building units and the central office.

When the new study was completed, the recommendations of the group brought about a compilation of statements clarifying the nature of various roles and their interrelationships. These were incorporated in statements approved and published by the board of education under two titles: (a) *Rules of the Board*—This publication presented the organization and functioning of the board; responsibilities of the superintendent and other executive officers; the assignments and responsibilities of principals; policies governing admission, transfer and exclusion of pupils; policies governing use of buildings and other school property; and provision for amendment, suspension and repeal of the rules. (b) *Administrative Organizational Manual*—This manual included regulations establishing the organization of the school personnel, a somewhat detailed description of the various operating divisions and services, and the nature of the responsibilities of all personnel in the operation of the schools.

In general, such statements will reflect the nature of professional philosophy developed in the school community over a period of years. They should provide a setting within which leaders can carry out the philosophy and policies of the system. The organizational structure should be consistent with the roles of the leaders, since design of the structure may facilitate or hinder their accomplishment. For example, it may facilitate or impede the team approach; it may emphasize or deny the opportunity for the individual school to serve as a center for instructional improvement; it may promote either central office coordination or central office control. Such policy statements may provide the foundation for an organizational structure that relies upon the leader behavior of its group members at all levels, or they may inhibit the development of such leader behavior.

Decentralizing leadership—The relationship of the individual school to system-wide planning needs careful thought. Many of the problems of the individual school are common to other schools of the system. Mutual cooperation in attacking these problems, and in jointly planning programs of service and courses of action, are important. A balance should be achieved between "everything controlled from the central office" and "each school shaping its own destiny."

In many individual schools, teachers councils are elected for the purpose of identifying tasks to be accomplished for school improvements, of designating staff members who will undertake various responsibilities, and of coordinating and appraising the undertakings. In high schools, representatives are usually elected by each department, whereas elementary school councils have representation from the various grade levels. Through such organizations many opportunities are identified for the productive use of teachers' leadership abilities. Results may range from providing direct assistance to new teachers to the making of suggestions for modifications in class scheduling or the use of building facilities. Some suggestions coming from such groups may have system-wide significance. Through such means the authority-responsibility-power pyramid may be flattened with a resulting increase in productivity.

As already observed, the encouragement and ultilization of decentralized leadership requires the establishment of adequate coordinating devices. In a school system which values individual teacher responsibility, committee activity, and other means of staff participation, it becomes difficult to screen, conserve and utilize the desirable leads for future action that result from such a variety of leadership activities. The school administration must find ways of establishing devices to help assure that identified problems are not overlooked, that committee recommendations are studied and implemented, and that committee activities are coordinated so that they function for instructional improvement. Such details of organization for promoting group solidarity and group productivity will vary from community to community according to the needs and goals which exist and should be the object of periodic evaluation as to their effectiveness.

Providing for continuous appraisal—In preparing to modify the system-wide organizational structure for curriculum improvement, one city superintendent first conferred with his assistants, principals and teachers who were known to be leaders. A week-end conference at a state park was then arranged, and invitations to attend were extended to all members of the school staff. A steering committee for the conference was appointed which included the superintendent as a member. During the conference, intensive small group discussions, interspersed with fun and relaxation, were focused on identifying concerns related to instruction. Before adjournment a committee was selected by the participants to compile the conclusions reached. During the weeks following the conference, principals and the staffs in all schools reviewed the list of problems which had been compiled, added others, and assigned priorities.

Problems fell into certain categories: curriculum, in-service education, teacher-pupil relations, staff personnel, and others. At the suggestion of the workshop compiling committee, standing committees representing a cross-section of administration, supervision, and teaching staffs were appointed to meet monthly and consider ways of solving the problems assigned to them. The committees were made advisory to the superintendent. A coordinating committee composed of representatives of the standing committees assisted in interrelating their work and in avoiding duplication.

An important function of such representative standing committees is that of receiving problems or recommendations from individuals, school councils or workshop committees, and of assuring that consideration is given to them. Results of the deliberations of these committees include recommendations requiring administrative or board action. Carefully prepared recommendations usually receive serious consideration and frequent approval.

Effective communication—Open and effective channels of communication are essential to an organization relying upon participative leadership. Opportunities must exist for official leaders and their co-workers to be continuously aware of the thinking and feeling of those with whom they work. Effective communication is especially important when the teaching staff is involved in a cooperative approach to the improvement of instruction. The variety and diversity of such activities, the size and complexity of the school and the school system are factors which complicate the problem of communication. As these factors become more complex, more definite concern must be given to the mechanics of organization for intercommunication and less can be left to chance.

Advisory staff committees and staff newsletters are among the ways school systems are working to devise better means of communication. The activities conducted in various kinds of workshops also make material contributions to the informal communications that are so needed to reinforce and supplement the more formal devices which are in operation. The study groups which frequently are a part of such workshops are vital in promoting system-wide cohesiveness. The personal growth and exploratory activities set up in addition to the study groups also play an important role in promoting understanding.

Although little has been said previously regarding the use of pupil leadership in improving instruction, it should be noted that the pupil can be a real expert in determining the planning and outcomes of the teaching-learning process. The hope is that as participative leadership is encouraged among teachers, they in turn will encourage the same relationships in the classroom.

Such examples as the preceding ones have occurred in many schools. The success of such efforts points to the following generalizations which may assist in building a productive organizational structure:

1. People must know the framework within which they operate. Those who share in leadership tasks should know in advance whether they serve in an advisory capacity or as final decision makers. They should know their relationships to other leaders and groups, both advisory and operational. They should know the legal limits and institutional policies which are pertinent.

2. Official leaders are responsible for seeing that necessary organizational structures are designed to carry policy agreements into action.

3. In truly cooperative endeavors, the role of official leaders need not detract from effective human relationships. Quality of relationships can be determined more by the degree of participative leadership, mutual respect, consideration and integrity than by relative official positions.

Creating a Climate for Growth and the Emergence of Leadership

Conditions which encourage or discourage, stimulate or depress, inspire or restrain are usually difficult to identify in full. Some of these conditions exist in the home and in family personal relationships and expectations. Some are to be found in the school in the attitudes and relationships between superiors and subordinates or between those in coordinate positions. Although it is very difficult to generalize with regard to such personal factors, it is possible to point to the following procedures and policies which superintendents, principals and other official leaders have developed for encouraging leadership behavior in others. The specific activities used must, of course, be appropriate to the situation in the individual school. Suggested activities follow.

- Committees with elected chairmen serve in screening and recommending key personnel such as assistant superintendents, supervisors and department heads.

- Principals meet with official leaders from the central staff in area groups small enough for face-to-face discussions of problems and policies.

- Teachers serve as chairmen and resource people in various professional meetings for instructional appraisal and improvement.

- Teachers groups participate responsibly in collecting and disseminating information concerning current educational experimentation and in suggesting possible areas for local experimentation.

- Those conducting local studies are properly acknowledged, and progress in their work is appropriately recognized.

- Teachers with unusual creativity or unusual capabilities are used as master teachers to help new teachers and in other ways that allow them to be recognized as leaders and yet remain in the classroom.

- Formal leadership development activities are conducted for those who have been given new or unusual responsibilities. Recorded sessions analyzing how various groups function and giving insight into the dynamics of a discussion group are used. Films, printed materials, consultants and role playing experiences are used for the same purpose.

- Annual all-day conferences for professional personnel are planned and carried out by committees composed of teachers, supervisory personnel and administrators.

- Conferences regularly involve teachers, parents and students in leadership roles.

- Many members of the teaching staff serve important roles in demonstrations and other interpretative activities for patrons on special occasions such as American Education Week and in other meetings in individual buildings throughout the year.

- Reports to the board of education and to school patrons regularly acknowledge professional achievements of staff members including professional publications; appointments to local, state, and national professional organizations; and other recognitions.

- Time off with pay is provided as needed for those elected to official positions in professional organizations.

- Professional growth classes and workshops, graduate study, and attendance at professional conferences are regularly made available to teachers and other staff members.

Many other examples of the environment that encourages emerging leadership may be found in Chapter Five. The activities described here and others in Chapter Five suggest several ideas which may be helpful in creating a climate for growth. These are:

1. Leadership behavior is encouraged through participation in decentralized decision-making and policy-forming procedures.

2. Leadership behavior is encouraged when the number of leadership roles is increased by decentralizing administrative and supervisory functions.

3. Public recognition of achievement encourages leadership behavior.

4. Providing for growth in confidence and competency in working with other people encourages staff members to participate as leaders.

5. Increasing participative leadership requires that involvement be productive, functional and accompanied by feelings of respect for all persons, consideration of diverse opinions, kindness and other positive human qualities of spirit and feeling.

6. Time demands on teachers for sharing leadership responsibilities must be realistic in consideration of their primary task of teaching.

Providing Adequate Resources for Effective Teaching and Learning

Inherent in many of the activities thus far discussed in this chapter is provision of many kinds of resources: materials, supplies, other physical facilities, special resource personnel from the school staff as well as from outside sources, and time. In the numerous references to workshops, conferences, and the work of councils and committees, there have been specific and implied references to the important outcomes of skills in human relations and in cooperative planning and action.

To avoid duplication, this section will be limited to only a few illustrations of other ways in which leadership in action makes use of adequate resources in promoting staff growth and instructional improvement. These will involve materials, consultant help, time and money for further study.

Little effort is generally needed to maintain a theoretical discussion on education. Most discussants find it much easier to express their opinions on "what should be done" than they do on "how to do it." In somewhat corresponding fashion, it is easier to talk about need for textbooks, visual aids, radios and television, library facilities, workbooks, practice devices, outside resource speakers, field trips, museum collections, science equipment, consultants, time and many other resources, than it is to get them or to help classroom teachers or study committees to use them with profit. Some school administrators and boards of education find in the latter fact sufficient justification for their failure to appropriate funds for providing such resources. Others who are more imaginative decide that ways of enriching instruction through use of varied resources can only be learned when the resources are made available to teachers.

With 65 percent of the operating budget assigned to teachers' salaries, one board of education was convinced that they should try out the policy of providing without question all basic and supplementary textbooks and all other instructional materials and supplies that any teacher requested. Costs of such materials increased by 30 percent the first year under this policy. About one-third of the teaching staff requested appreciable increases, mainly in supplementary books and filmstrips. A number who failed to request additional materials later expressed envy of those who did. In subsequent years expenditures continued above normal with more and more teachers gradually increasing their requests.

The new materials caused many teachers to modify their teaching practices. An experimental attitude evolved and new approaches were planned and tested. Sharing of experiences with materials and experimenting on a broader scale with them have provided stimulus for change in many areas. When outcomes were compared to actual costs, this practice was judged to be an inexpensive investment in instructional improvement.

Many such effective efforts for instructional improvement have been initiated through provision of more adequate materials, supplies and equipment. Such materials are involved in nearly every teaching-learning activity. Their selection and use reflect knowledge of children, educational philosophy and objectives, and degree of teaching effectiveness. Staff members in the individual schools have responsibilities for intelligent selection and use of such resources. In one elementary school the primary and the intermediate teachers each year elect a building instructional supplies committee composed of two representatives each. This committee is responsible for keeping the staff informed of policies and of the nature of supplies available. Members obtain requests for supplies from each teacher in formulating the spring requisition. The committee also supervises the supply room, which is open for withdrawals by teachers at all times.

In another school system, the budget each year provides for honoraria for outside consultants to work with school staffs, standing committees, workshops and conferences. Personnel from colleges, universities, business, industry, the state department of public instruction, and other institutions enrich planning and study by local staff members.

After discussions with principals and with representatives of the schools and industry, one school superintendent appointed an industry-schools committee to consider ways for strengthening the school instructional program in the sciences. Committee study and recommendations resulted in major appropriations for junior high school demonstration equipment and for renovation and re-equipping of high school laboratories. At the request of teachers and principals, the newly appointed consultant in science began a continuing series of workshops on the use of this equipment which resulted in rapid growth in understanding of scientific principles and development of ability to lead pupils to understand scientific concepts. The industry-schools committee, recognizing the need of many teachers for additional professional training, obtained a three-year grant of $10,000 per year for teacher scholarships for further university study in science and mathematics. Also, on recommendation of the committee, the board began a policy of sending high school teacher representatives to national and regional conferences to stimulate professional growth.

Another school system recognized that one of the resources most difficult to provide is time. The involvement of staff in curriculum improvement, the processes of group study, and action for instructional improvement require time on the part of all participants. Since these activities are often conducted concurrently with the full-time assignments of the participants, this system has adopted the policy of providing the time needed for participation. Since time is a limited resource, serious study is made of each problem, and committee activity is used selectively and only for appropriate, priority tasks.

When teachers councils meet, substitutes are provided for the participants. When curriculum guides need to be revised, substitutes are employed. A major part of the work is scheduled for the summer when the staff members concerned can be retained on salary and work without interruptions. When pilot courses are being initiated, the teacher is given fewer responsibilities and more time to devote to the innovation. Department chairmen providing intermediate leadership for large departments teach only three classes daily. Elementary teachers are involved in study and planning one afternoon per month when students leave the building at noon.

In another city, recognition of continuing responsibility to assist classroom teachers in their professional growth has been institutionalized in the supervisory staff structure. A staff of general elementary school consultants with their supervisor gives regular assistance to all teachers of self-contained classrooms in classroom organization, lesson planning, pupil management and teaching methods and materials. Similar services are given junior high school and senior high school teachers by special area consultants, supervisors and high school department heads. Also, a staff of school psychologists, school social workers, and special clinic facilities provided by school and community assist with pupil problems.

The following guidelines may be useful in determining the resources to be provided for effective teaching and learning:

1. Greatest realization of the value of school dollars is achieved by providing liberally the relatively "inexpensive" materials which enhance efficient use of the immeasurably more "valuable" time of teachers and children.

2. Official leadership is responsible for bringing to bear personnel resources from outside the system to assure breadth of viewpoint and to enrich and expand opportunities for professional growth.

3. Consultants and other supervisory personnel from the central office serve in individual buildings in cooperation with the principal and staff groups working on instructional problems. Services are available to all teachers and are generally most effective in improving teacher growth when rendered in response to expressed needs and requests for assistance.

4. Provision of necessary resources requires that official leadership establish effective administrative procedures for their regular distribution and efficient utilization.

Official Leadership Roles and Responsibilities in Instructional Improvement

Many recent writings on the nature of democratic leadership have emphasized the importance of emergent or situational leadership as contrasted with official or positional leadership, and have idealized the leader as a group facilitator. This new emphasis has tended to confuse some principals and other school officials regarding their roles and responsibilities. Frequently this confusion has resulted in a lack of adequate leadership in the situations for which these official leaders are accountable.

The desirability of including in decision making those persons who are affected by the decisions and others who possess information needed in reaching sound conclusions was emphasized in the opening pages of this chapter. This procedure is of great importance, particularly in arriving at decisions that have broad meaning and application in the instructional program, in the program of in-service education, or in other programs designed for instructional improvement. For example, a decision as to what should be taught in social studies in the schools has broad significance. So, also, has the decision as to the recommended relationships of instructional consultants to building principals and teachers. Regardless of how many people participate in the making of such broad decisions, those in responsible official positions should be included. Furthermore, their participation should be dynamic and guided by their best professional judgment. Certainly no support should be given to any proposition which calls for the inhibition of any spark of creativity, intelligence or initiative in anyone, much less in those designated as official leaders.

Knowing that he is accountable for consequences, the official leader may feel that he should also retain the key position in the decision-reaching process—with the help and concurrence of others when possible, without the help and without the concurrence of others when necessary. It is the typical pattern of such decision making that may ultimately determine the attitudes of others toward the official leader. If he operates within a structure of policies and procedures established over a period of time through many, many cooperative planning activities; if he considers those decisions or proposals not covered by policy as hypotheses subject to testing with others concerned and subject to revision, and if he is consistently considerate of others in his actions, then he will be viewed with approval and given support by others on those occasions when the pressure of time or money requires administrative action in the absence of policy.

Following are some of the unique responsibilities of persons who occupy designated leadership positions, including principals, superintendents, department heads, supervisors, consultants, and teachers at the classroom level.

1. Official leaders are employed in the expectation that they will lead. For such people to operate only as arbitrators or facilitators of group action is an abrogation of responsibility which may as frequently lead to a *laissez faire* situation as to productive democratic action.

2. Official leaders are responsible for identifying needs for curriculum change and instructional improvement, and for setting up arrangements to meet these needs. This includes responsibility for awakening an awareness in others of unperceived needs.

3. Official leaders are held by the community personally accountable for task accomplishment within the sphere of their responsibilities.

4. Official leaders must be capable of recognizing and utilizing all resources available in promoting the welfare of children and youth. Such resources include the participative leadership potential that exists in all members of the school community.

5. Official leaders need to guard against the tendency to become isolated from those who occupy dissimilar roles. Status isolation of this kind seems to increase as the number of people in similar positions decreases.

Presented in the following sections are examples of the important roles and responsibilities of selected official school leaders as they work to spearhead action for the improvement of instruction. Since such improvement ultimately must take place in the individual school and classroom, the official leaders discussed first will be those most directly concerned with the teaching-learning process.

The Teacher

The expression, "improvement of instruction," takes on significance as we relate it to improvement of the teaching-learning process and, in turn, to the improvement of learning—the ultimate goal. Only as children and youth become more knowing, more understanding, more skillful, more creative, healthier, and more moral in their behaviors as a result of their school experiences has instructional improvement really occurred.

Only the learner can assure that he will learn. But the nature of the teaching-learning environment, its psychological climate, and the quality of interpersonal relationships can be determined to a great degree by the teacher and other adults whose task is to assist him. The stimulation, encouragement, enhancement, and guidance of learning are aspects of teacher leadership which, at its best, equals or exceeds any other in its requirements of personal attributes and professional competencies. The teacher is the official leader who, more than any other, is directly engaged in conducting the main business of the school—that of helping children to learn.

The manner in which the teacher exercises his leadership affects the degree to which success is experienced in all learning, including the development of leadership behaviors in pupils. In previous sections, the task of creating conditions conducive to the emergence of leadership was discussed with reference to adults. The teacher has the same task with reference to his students. Indeed, all five tasks of the official leader apply with slight adaptations to the teacher and the classroom situation. In a society depending so much on the independence and competency of each individual, it is imperative that opportunities be provided for the development of ability in self-direction and in critical thinking and evaluation. To support the teacher in carrying out this responsibility, the philosophy of the school must be favorably inclined toward teaching practices which help children to learn to think. Principals and other officials must see this as an important role of teachers, not only those in the less structured extracurricular or cocurricular activities but also those in the academic classrooms.

The teacher's leadership role in instructional improvement includes more than the leadership exercised in the classroom with children. He is also vitally needed in planning and conducting activities with parents and other lay members of the community. These activities enable the school to understand better the community's needs and desires and enable the community members to understand better the school program. If the teacher does not accept such a leadership role, an important force for improving instruction will lie dormant or may work at cross purposes to the existing program. It is not enough to conduct a fine program in the classroom. The community must see the classroom program as a good one and see it as relating directly to the accomplishing of desired objectives.

Likewise, a teacher cannot focus on his work in the classroom to the exclusion of considerations concerning the design of instructional programs. Sooner or later he will find himself hampered by a program designed too exclusively by those who are not working directly with children. If he believes that participation in administration is an imposition on him, he may find himself confronted with an administrative structure not in harmony with the classroom program which he is trying to conduct.

The Principal

Within the limitations of personnel and physical resources of a given situation, the role of the principal of the individual school is potentially one of the most influential for improving the teaching-learning processes. In spite of all his varied responsibilities, including building management and public relations, the principal's primary role remains that of instructional leadership.

The concept of the school as the strategic center for curriculum improvement has added new dimensions to the leadership function of the principal. It assumes that he will be aware of the individual differences of the staff and that he will possess considerable skill in processes of cooperative program planning and in releasing and helping to develop the teaching potentials of his staff. This concept further assumes that the principal will be competent in his knowledge of the school curriculum, that he will be sensitive to emerging trends, and that he will show insight with respect to the points at which progress can be made in the local situation. A knowledge of the available resources of the school system and surrounding community will enable him to guide the selection and coordination of such services in his building. Depending on the size of the school and the number of people assigned to share specific facets of his responsibility, he will be at various times instructional consultant to individual teachers and guidance counselor to pupils. These roles are discussed in later sections but should be considered aspects of the principal's general responsibility.

A good principal is convinced of the importance of organization and psychological climate in promoting a desire for professional improvement and in releasing the constructive leadership potential of his staff. He will, therefore, devote some time to the development of arrangements through which problems may be shared and critical decisions made in face-to-face situations with his staff members. In smaller schools this may be accomplished in general staff meetings. In larger schools, a more complex organization of departments or divisions with elected representation to a central advisory council may be required.

In one school, such a council is responsible for acting as a clearinghouse for staff suggestions, and as an evaluative and deliberative body. Members meet with the principal regularly during the school year. Any area of school operation is subject to their inquiry. In addition to dealing with their day-to-day concerns, this council has made the following contributions to the school:

1. A statement concerning discipline in a democracy
2. A recommended organization for instructional improvement involving department chairmen, with job specifications, released time formulas and other important provisions
3. Recommendation of a teacher load structure for the school
4. Ways of releasing teacher time for teaching by identifying tasks better accomplished by secretaries
5. Recommendation of a policy for grouping students in each of the subject matter fields
6. Understanding of the relationships between the various advanced placement programs and the effect of these programs on students
7. Recommendations of the relationship of the summer school program to that of the regular term, and ways for insuring that the summer school experience is both unique and coordinated with the regular term
8. A testing program, follow-up program, school records, and other devices for accumulating data for use in evaluating the program of instruction.

The activities conducted by groups such as this are powerful factors in nurturing the leadership potential of staff members and in bringing it to bear on school problems. The development of a feeling of freedom to admit problems and express opinions with confidence helps to release creative efforts for improvement. The principal, as a member of these groups, assists in making important regulations that affect the school program and that are in accord with general school policies.

At times, members of such councils may need to guard against making decisions arbitrarily. They may have to be careful that they do not act in such a way as merely to protect their own interests. By using as an ultimate test the effect that any decision or plan will have on children, this pitfall can be avoided. They also have had to realize the limits of their function within the framework of board policies and the responsibilities of official leaders.

In addition to his responsibilities for general staff leadership and assistance to individuals, the principal is responsible for helping the community to express its expectations of the school program. The parent-teacher or student-parent-teacher organization is used by many principals for this purpose. One principal utilizes the regular Parent-Teacher Association meetings for small group discussions of problems or topics of general concern. On such occasions, as many as 30 or 40 discussion groups may be in operation, sharing their reports with the entire group when it reassembles. Parents' concerns expressed in this way are studied by staff and staff-parent groups. Each year the organization publishes a handbook which is concerned, not with the Parent-Teacher Association, but with the school and its program.

Citizens advisory councils or committees on specific problem areas have been mentioned as means through which the community may identify its concerns and objectives and alleviate some of its problems. In such advisory organizations, the principal has a key role as resource person and interpreter of the school.

Regardless of the nature of the mechanisms for involving the community, the principal cannot work alone. Staff members should share widely in this responsibility; yet, if members of the staff do not see this as a proper role for them, they will resent the demands on their time, feel that outside suggestions and interests are interfering with their professional work, and consider themselves threatened by the necessity to work with other people from the community. It is not enough for the principal to see the appropriateness of this activity; he must help the staff to discover it also.

The principal's perception of his role in relation to the total system is always important; it becomes even more so in those systems where the pattern of administration is decentralized. If the principal assumes no responsibility for the system as a whole, attempts to build up his own school at the expense of others, feels that autonomy is more important than cooperative action, and stands constantly ready to defend "the way we do it," those attempting to coordinate system-wide activities will find their task most difficult. The principal's view of his role in improving instruction may cause him to ignore the personnel from the central office, to reject them, or to welcome them and work closely with them.

The Instructional Consultant

As previously noted, many of the building principal's functions, which are directly concerned with the supervision of instruction, are identical to those ascribed to the instructional consultant. These will be made more specific in the following discussion of some of the official leadership positions grouped under the general designation, "instructional consultant." These positions will be considered in three categories: the building consultant, the high school department chairman, and the consultant from the central office.

The building consultant—The instructional consultant who works in a single school may be called a helping teacher, a resource teacher, a curriculum consultant, or a curriculum coordinator. Whatever his title, he has an important function in the improvement of teaching and learning. The importance of person to person influence and assistance has been emphasized repeatedly in this yearbook. The importance of the teacher and the primary nature of our concern with the classroom situation has been made clear. It follows, then, that other official leaders having direct contact with the teacher and pupils are a very significant link in the chain which includes community, board, superintendent, central staff personnel, and principal. In schools organized on a departmentalized basis, the department head is often this final link, although in smaller schools it may be the principal or curriculum coordinator. In large schools it may be a supervisor or consultant.

In addition to his work as instructional leader, the principal is also building manager, public relations agent, moderator of staff and community conflicts, school representative to the central office, and counselor and health adviser to children.

Because of the increasing number of such responsibilities, especially in large elementary and secondary schools today, many school systems are providing staff personnel to assist the principal with his job of supervising instruction. These assistants are responsible to the principal. They are selected because they are first of all fine teachers; secondly, because they possess keen insights regarding children and the factors which go to make up an excellent learning situation, and finally because they are people with the empathy and the security which enable them to encourage, build up, give credit, and contribute from backstage, and still draw personal satisfactions from the successes of others. One such consultant, trying to describe her role, wrote the following:

> The primary function of the consultant is to help in the improvement of classroom instruction: to work cooperatively with principals in assisting teachers through demonstration teaching, group and individual conferences, making teaching aids, interpreting courses of study, and working cooperatively with the staff generally on common educational problems.
>
> A consultant is a friend, a resource, a guide—someone to turn to for helpful advice, someone to set higher standards when children are not making the progress they should, a leader when methods and techniques are weak, a follower when the teacher exhibits her own creative ability, and an interested onlooker when the teacher gains courage, know-how, and complete independence.

It can readily be seen that the work of consultants is broader than the teaching process itself, yet includes giving assistance to teachers on every type of classroom problem encountered. The following list is illustrative but by no means all-inclusive of areas of assistance offered to teachers by the instructional consultant:

1. Organizing classrooms, including grouping of children, setting up interest centers, advising on programs, and developing materials
2. Helping teachers develop better teaching techniques
3. Observing teachers and pupils at work and conferring with the teacher following the observation
4. Interpreting curriculum guides and assisting with lesson planning
5. Helping to establish standards of work and behavior
6. Arranging visitations for teachers within or between schools
7. Acquainting teachers with supplementary materials
8. Helping in the development of good human relationships among children, parents, and school personnel
9. Encouraging teachers to share abilities and talents
10. Helping administer tests and interpret scores
11. Helping teachers to solve problems of pupil control and discipline
12. Demonstrating techniques through actual teaching
13. Serving as resource person in before-school and after-school building meetings and area meetings.

The high school department chairman—This leadership position is a traditional one and is sometimes questioned. Yet, high schools usually name people to this position, and, if they do, careful attention should be given to the important role that the department head can play in his assignment.

The high school department head or chairman can be one of the key leaders for instructional improvement in the large high school. He should be among the persons most conversant with new developments in his field in terms of both subject matter and methods. He should be carefully selected because of his abilities as a fine teacher, because of his understandings of the teaching-learning process, and because of his initiative, interest and competency in providing stimulating leadership and assistance to others in seeking improvement in their teaching. His tasks and way of working within his department are similar to those described previously for the building consultant.

Instructional consultants from the central office—In some school systems, a staff of supervisors and consultants is provided in a system-wide arrangement. Although such persons are housed centrally and organized administratively as a part of the central office staff, it is preferable that they function in the same manner as has been described for the consultant attached to an individual school. Under this concept, while working in a given school the central office consultant works under the direction of the principal. As previously indicated, the consultant's major responsibility is that of assisting teachers in the classroom. Although he works cooperatively with the principal in identifying matters of concern and possible approaches to improvement, principals and other official leaders whose positions are more associated with authority are wise to relieve the instructional consultant of responsibility for teacher evaluation, if such a process is required. Lack of responsibility for such rating is conducive to the development of the necessary confidence and rapport in providing the best consultant service to teachers.

Members of the central office staff designated as supervisors, curriculum coordinators, or otherwise, may function much like the instructional consultants already discussed. However, usually such positions have additional administrative responsibilities. Although he does not carry authority in regard to principals and teachers assigned to individual schools, the supervisor does have direct responsibility with respect to consultants or others in his particular service department. He works with other central office personnel and with principals in identifying instructional problems and in giving leadership and assistance to teachers and others in their solution. He develops and makes available opportunities for professional growth. He provides information, helps screen new staff members, helps select materials and serves as a resource person to the board of education and administration.

Such central office supervisors sometimes are responsible for leadership in a special area or a limited general area of the instructional program. Examples include supervisors of art, of music, of home economics, of language arts, of social studies, and general supervisors of elementary education and secondary education. We shall not presume here to insist that one type of organization is best. The most important factor is the quality of the people who carry the titles and not the titles themselves. Persons who are competent both in subject matter knowledge and in working with others can often overcome the segregation of learning areas implied in their titles. Breadth of responsibility implied in titles does not assure breadth of vision and competency, or ability to help others in correlating various instructional areas.

The Guidance Worker

There are many dimensions to the task of improving the instructional program. If we believe that the quality of the program is not entirely inherent in the nature of the learning opportunities provided but also resides in the effective use of opportunities by the learners, then we can immediately see that one of these dimensions is the efficacy with which we guide the student to learning experiences which best suit his needs, interests and abilities. This task is shared by many members of the school staff. Frequently specialists in guidance are assigned to individual buildings because of the importance of the guidance aspect in the total educational experience. Guidance workers have an important role in working with other members of the teaching staff for the improvement of instruction. The guidance counselor should exercise his leadership so that all teachers and others will provide better learning experiences for students and be more effective in helping them succeed in their developmental tasks. All teachers can make contributions to guidance through their regular teaching assignments.

Teachers are frequently asked to engage in personnel work for which they have not had special preparation; the guidance counselor can be of great assistance in sharing his knowledge in this area. Likewise teachers are sometimes confronted with problems of pupil adjustment which they should be encouraged to handle themselves; here the counselor can provide information and resources while he avoids intruding into the teacher-pupil relationship. Guidance specialists may work with teachers in developing units of study dealing with problems which are too common to many boys and girls. Developing cumulative records and learning to observe child behavior are other areas in which teachers need skill and in relation to which guidance counselors can be of assistance.

It is sometimes easier for guidance specialists to understand their role in relation to students than in relation to adults of the school and community. Those who do not see the necessity for working with parents and other members of the community and with other staff members are unnecessarily restricting their influence. The guidance counselor who focuses only on the child or youth client may identify problems, but effective treatment of the problems must include the cooperation of others.

The guidance counselor is the member of the professional staff who must be particularly aware of the nature of human development, concerned with growth and the personality needs of pupils, and cognizant of the specific interests, aspirations, capabilities, and cultural backgrounds of the children and youth of the school. The guidance counselor should seek also many opportunities to consult with and to contribute to the in-service education of those trying to improve the curriculum and the processes of teaching and learning. In planning for the education of children and youth, the guidance worker has a vital leadership role. At the same time, this role does not minimize the importance of the expert services of guidance specialists and psychologists in the clinical and social case work fields.

The Assistant Superintendent for Instruction or the Director of Instruction

In many systems, central office personnel carry leadership responsibilities intermediate to those of the general superintendent and the building principal. These people share the superintendent's functions of instructional leadership. Effective operation in such roles frequently requires a large degree of diplomacy and a sense of balance between direct and indirect leadership approaches to problems. Differences in philosophy, in perceptions of roles, and in methods of operation are to be expected. However, the ready reconciliation of misunderstandings arising from closely related or overlapping areas of responsibility is requisite to the maintenance of effective leadership.

The director of instruction must maintain close and continuing communication with the superintendent on all matters of major concern in the instructional area. His interpretations of policy must be consistent with those of the superintendent. He operates within the limitations of board and administrative policies and within his own appraisal of community acceptances and of readiness of staff and community for change. He observes carefully the line of communication which leads first to the superintendent on its way to the board and community.

In systems where the director of instruction plays a dynamic role, he has provided for regular face-to-face contacts with principals in particular, with other supervisory personnel such as supervisors, consultants and department heads, and as frequently as occasion permits with teachers. He works with both standing committees and with committees on special problems, many of which include citizen members from outside the school.

The nature of the leadership role of the director of instruction is indicated in part by the following excerpts from an assistant superintendent's annual report:

> To provide the means for cooperatively reaching decisions regarding curriculum and supervision problems, monthly meetings were held by the assistant superintendent with the coordinator of elementary education and elementary principals from each section of the city. Similar meetings were held with the coordinator of secondary education and the high school principals.
>
> Matters on which creative work was done with the elementary principals include:
>
> —Functions of consultants and supervisors
>
> —Policy regarding use of new handwriting text and practice materials
>
> —Consolidation and interpretation of principles for making classroom schedules
>
> —Evaluation of the services of supervisors and consultants
>
> —A review and further study of the unit method of teaching
>
> —Policy for the equitable distribution of supplementary book funds
>
> —Plans for utilization of textbook publishers' consultants in reading and writing instruction
>
> —Plans for an experimental program to strengthen instruction in reading in the upper grades
>
> —Agreement that elementary principals will lead curriculum appraisal and improvement efforts in the individual schools and submit illustrative examples at the end of the year.

Matters on which creative work was done with high school principals include:

—Functions of consultants and supervisors

—Coordination of the work of high school committees for gifted children

—Procedures regarding assignment and supervision of student teachers

—Completion of the language arts guide for the high schools

—Appraising the use of varied materials in classes grouped according to learning rate

—Improvement in articulation of instruction in junior and senior high schools

—Planning an action research project on use of closed circuit television

—Agreement that high school principals would lead curriculum appraisal and improvement efforts in the individual schools and submit illustrative examples at the end of the year.

In larger systems the assistant superintendent for instruction, in addition to his direct working relationships with principals, will be responsible for giving leadership to the staff of supervisors and the consultants working under them. At the high school level he will work with supervisors and heads of special subject departments. The work of advisory committees on the instructional program, on in-service education programs and on other supervisory services will require a major share of his time and attention. He will, of course, carry out any other leadership responsibilities which the superintendent may delegate to or share with him.

The Superintendent of Schools

Since the promotion of learning is the primary function of schools, responsibility for the improvement of instruction cannot completely be delegated to others by the superintendent of schools. His responbility for instructional leadership can only be shared with assistant superintendents, directors of instruction, building principals, teachers, supervisors and others. The degree of his direct involvement in instructional improvement activities is determined to a large extent by the way in which he perceives the role of the superintendent. If he firmly believes in well-defined line and staff organization, he may delegate responsibility for the instructional program to one of his assistant superintendents and have little to do with the proposing, planning, conducting and evaluating of instruction.

Another superintendent may believe equally firmly in line and staff organization but may see himself as the person who works directly with principals and the assistant superintendent for instruction in joint study, discussion, and decision making. Two other superintendents rejecting the line and staff concept may see their roles quite differently. One may work cooperatively with others to build an organizational design that best promotes the efficient operation of the school system. The other may use educational patterns recommended by best current thinking to reorganize his relationships with others along the lines of a plan that he has developed.

Depending on the concept of the role which he holds, the superintendent will select from a variety of possible courses of action the one he wishes to follow. It is crucially important that he explore the role expectations of lay members of the community, board members, and other staff members as he identifies his major responsibilities. It is likewise important that he make his conception of his role clear to others.

Selection of personnel—A very important responsibility of the superintendent in relation to instruction is that of attracting, selecting and retaining good teachers. The shortage of personally well-adjusted, competent and well-educated teachers has been and will be the most critical problem of education in the foreseeable future. Competition for existing supplies of teachers may in time result in sufficiently improved incentives to affect markedly the number of the most capable young people desiring to enter the teaching profession. Until that happens, the school administrator will need to be constantly vigilant against the possibility of staffing the system with unfit and incompetent people whom he cannot dismiss because of tenure policy provisions. To the extent that he can avoid this while continuing to add to the existing corps of suitable, competent, dedicated and well-educated teachers, he will be making one of the greatest possible contributions to improving instruction.

One superintendent has established an exemplary program of personnel recruitment and selection in his system. The director of personnel, who is an assistant superintendent, spends most of the second semester of each year visiting teacher education institutions over much of two regional accrediting association areas. With him on these visits is a recruiting team composed of elementary principals, junior high school principals, senior high school principals, elementary supervisors, and secondary supervisors. The individuals are changed for each trip, but the representation remains constant. They take with them materials that help to provide the information needed by candidates, e.g., brochures describing the community, illustrated reports on the school system, and personnel policy briefs.

Several persons interview each candidate and record their perceptions of his or her potential. Thus personnel in various roles in the school system pool their judgments and assist in securing teachers who are likely to meet the standards demanded of teachers in their community. When candidates visit the community, the director makes appointments for them with various principals at the school level at which they seek employment. The candidate visits a school, talks with the principal, and is interviewed by other members of the school staff. The principal talks with persons of his staff who have interviewed the candidates, a decision is reached, and the director of personnel is notified. He may then offer the position to the candidate. He can do this with assurance if, before sending the candidate to the school, a preliminary screening has been conducted. If no preliminary screening has taken place, either the director or the principal may conduct the initial interview. After both have interviewed the candidate, they confer and reach a decision. This process takes a little time, but its cooperative nature is extremely valuable in promoting better selection, increased opportunity for staff leadership, and group cohesiveness.

In this system it must be clear that the superintendent's concept of the role which the assistant for personnel, the principal, and members of the teaching staff play in staff recruitment and selection differs markedly from that held elsewhere. In another system, for example, the director of personnel travels widely in recruiting but is accompanied by no other staff member. He selects and assigns staff members according to his own perceptions of what is needed.

Separation of personnel—In staffing the school system, the welfare of children and youth must always be the first concern of the official leader. When staff competencies and performance fall short of expectations, the superintendent is responsible for knowing this and for initiating corrective action. Adults who need help should get it. Time and other resources for growth should be provided. However, this approach to remedying staff deficiencies should be used only when the effects of the adult's current behavior on children are within acceptable tolerances. When these tolerances are exceeded, with resulting deprivation or harm to children, the official leader must take action to remove the staff member. An administrator may feel deserted and left to stand alone in such cases. He may perceive his role as that of an executioner, avoid it as long as possible, and then act in a very arbitrary way to terminate the services of the person involved.

A clearer perception of his role might enable the superintendent to act in quite a different fashion. For example, he might see that in this instance, as in others, a necessity exists for involving other persons in helping to make decisions about a matter which directly affects them. He then discusses widely with other individuals (board members, teachers, supervisors, superintendents, principals) the question of reasonable tolerances of adult behavior. A statement of agreements is then evolved. In discussions with the staff, definite procedures should be devised. Included should be such items as the personnel to be involved and time deadlines to be met. Agreement concerning the functions of various persons should be reached. Within such a cooperatively evolved structure the official leader usually perceives his role in relation to the supporting roles of others and, therefore, sees his task in a more accepting light.

Other responsibilities for evaluation and interpretation—The continuous evaluation of personnel is an essential responsibility of official leaders. Through such evaluations, the identification of special competencies of individuals, the location of areas in which improvement is needed, and the safeguarding of children's right to educational opportunity can be achieved. The benefit in a team approach to such evaluation is obvious.

Another responsibility of the superintendent of schools and his assistants is to interpret clearly and embody in an organization the framework of expectations and limitations determined by the community and expressed through the board of education policies. In practice, this is a continuing process which, in part, is carried on in principals' meetings through discussion and decision-making relative to specific incidents, in part through talks to professional and community groups, and in part through publications.

In addition to the responsibility for building an organization, superintendents should help the school personnel to recognize that the system is an entity. A feeling of system-wide strength and of system-wide allegiance is a powerful coordinating and supporting force. The superintendent can help staff members achieve this identification through the personnel newsletter, through system-wide instructional councils, through cooperatively developed instructional guides and through fostering community expressions of pride in their schools.

Many systems have carefully and cooperatively planned orientation programs for new teachers. These include introductions to the schools and the community through field trips to businesses and industries, filmstrips, overviews of the nature of the community and its schools, close association with personnel who have system-wide responsibilities, and discussions of programs and policies common to all schools.

The superintendent of one school system accepted as one of his important responsibilities that of insuring that an adequate and comprehensive system of research and evaluation was in effect. All aspects of the instructional program were subjected to careful evaluation. This was cooperatively planned and, whenever possible, was cooperatively conducted. Paper and pencil tests were only one of the instruments used in gathering the data for this evaluation. It was generally agreed that standardized test instruments would also be made available for use and machine scored in whatever quantity and in whatever areas the staff decided. A teacher-supervisor-principal committee, after working with teachers, identified the tests to be given at each grade level and set dates for administering these. The adequacy of the basic test design was reviewed annually. In addition to these basic instruments, through system-wide agreement, additional tests were placed on the schedule. One criterion to be met before adding a test was an agreement that the data would need to be gathered through more than one use of the instrument. The agreement to add the test to the program carried an implicit responsibility to analyze the returns. Collection of data and the commitment to analyze it are important facets of such a program of evaluation.

In yet another school system, at the superintendent's suggestion, the school board gave citizens an opportunity to participate in the evaluation process through board advisory committees appointed by the board. One such committee, meeting with a principal and members of his staff once each month during the school year, examined the school's instructional program for the mentally handicapped, the program for mathematics and science instruction, the school budget, and other factors to determine the quality of the program. The results of the committee's thinking were given to the superintendent and board for their consideration. Illustrative of proper provision of specific instructions regarding the functions of such a committee are the following excerpts from the written directions received by each committee member prior to the first meeting.

GUIDE FOR CITIZENS ADVISORY COMMITTEE PARTICIPATION

Basic Principles

The legal responsibility for the educational policy in the public schools lies with the school board and the superintendent of schools. The educational program maintained by the community, however, is the concern of all its citizens and their participation in educational planning should be kept as direct and informal as possible.

Parent advisory committees for each school are appointed by the school board. These committees provide one means by which people in the community may express their opinions and wishes to the school board. Although the school board has the authority and responsibility in making final decisions, citizens' participation in educational planning is essential at all times.

Purpose

The function of these advisory committees is to serve as a liaison between the school community, the superintendent and the school board.

Duties

1. To study the needs of the individual school community and consider them in relation to the county-wide program of education
2. To work in close cooperation with the local Parent-Teacher Association
3. To discuss with the principal those problems which exist in the school community
4. To present recommendations to the superintendent and to the school board
5. To assist in the interpretation of policies and the educational program to individuals and groups of citizens.

Consultants from Outside the System

The resource person from a university, from the state department of education, and from other sources has an important leadership role. The employing school system has responsibility for helping visiting consultants to understand what they are expected to do. With all the assistance that personnel of the school can give and with all the skill that the resource person possesses, discovery of the most useful role for persons from outside the system often presents a problem.

Once the consultant's role is determined, all those concerned should keep this role clearly in mind as they work together. A school system, feeling the need for such role identification, might inform the consultant in writing. The type of written communication would differ with the type of service required of the consultant. Excerpts from a letter sent to consultants who were to serve in a workshop follow:

> Our experience in our workshops during the past few years has indicated that individuals who serve as workshop consultants have many different concepts regarding what is expected of them. We believe that it is our responsibility to assist persons who come to serve us in this capacity in understanding our expectations regarding what they are to do.
>
> First of all, we think that you should know that the teachers who will be in the workshop group in which you will take part are in that group because they selected it as their problem or topic of interest. We want the work of the group to reflect *their* problems and interests. In order that this objective will be insured, the actual leadership of the group will be in the hands of a teacher chairman, a teacher recorder, blackboard recorder, etc. These teacher leaders will have had some preparation for their responsibilities and varying degrees of previous experience in carrying out responsibilities of this kind.
>
> If the workshop groups are to discuss the problems and interests of the members, a "problem census" must be held early in the first session. This problem census will be conducted by the teacher chairman. The visiting consultant or resource person might well take part in this problem census if he is careful not to dominate it. He should certainly seek to understand what the group and individuals within the group mean by the problems that are stated.
>
> A brief summary of some of the ideas that we think are important in our workshop groups might be stated as follows:
>
> 1. The major purpose of the small group meetings is to facilitate group thinking about common problems.
>
> 2. It is important that the group meetings *not* be considered classes in any traditional sense. There is probably little or no place for an extended lecture from anyone in the small group workshop meetings.
>
> 3. The consultant or resource person should consider himself a participant in the discussion of a group concern, a guide to group thinking, but must be careful that he *not* become a dominating influence to the extent that group thinking is interrupted.

Following the above were quotations drawn from current literature which described the ideal workshop situation.

When a consultant is obtained for other purposes, similar communication may be established and the task outlined as clearly, definitely and specifically as possible.

The consultant from outside the system is an insurance against isolation. He can often make a rich contribution. His leadership is greatly needed for instructional improvement and can be more fully realized if his task is made manageable by delimitation and his unfamiliarity with the situation compensated for by advance preparation and advance communication.

The Search for Leadership

Leaders in action for instructional improvement as conceived in this yearbook will by the very nature of their functions be constantly seeking out and helping to develop the leadership potential in others. One good measure of their success will be the progressive growth in independent initiative among those with whom they work.

In addition to their concern for the encouragement of leadership behavior in those already within their school system, school leaders must also be active in recruiting new leadership from outside the system. The weaknesses of institutional inbreeding have frequently been recognized and need no elaboration here.

The discovery and development of leadership for instructional improvement are treated in detail in Chapter Five.

CHAPTER FIVE

EDUCATIONAL LEADERS: DISCOVERY AND DEVELOPMENT

THE CONCEPT of leadership here presented requires re-examination of our ways of selecting and preparing leaders. Whom do we select if we believe it is the leader's responsibility to help a group define and achieve its goals? How do we prepare a person for a leadership role in which he understands and acts upon principles that will enhance his effectiveness as a leader? Skills and insights in human development, group dynamics, human relations, and community structure become significant. No longer will knowledge of school organization and of management or supervisory techniques suffice for the leader.

This chapter discusses the discovery and identification of potential leaders, considers the kinds of situations in schools in which leadership can be tested and developed, takes up the actual process of selecting official leaders in a school system, and then analyzes the preparation of leaders. The authors recognize that the development and selection of leaders are often concurrent and related. They hold that an official leader's preparation for leadership does not end when he is selected for a position in a school system. The total discussion is oriented toward leadership for the improvement of classroom instruction, since this is the most significant evidence of the effectiveness of those who serve as educational leaders.

What Are the Assumptions?

Following are statements of position taken throughout this chapter. These may serve as criteria by which to evaluate leadership discovery and development activities in school systems and institutions of higher learning:

1. In any leadership oriented to democratic values, the sharing and use of leadership is of utmost significance. We are deeply concerned with emerging leadership.

2. All teachers exercise leadership in the classroom, and often in other ways, but not all teachers are potential official leaders.

3. The basic principles of leadership are common to both official and unofficial leaders.

4. An adequate program of leadership training has three dimensions: (a) insuring in-service growth of present official leaders, (b) providing for identification and growth of individuals with official leadership potential, and (c) encouraging and using emerging leadership in appropriate situations.

5. A leadership development program should be appropriate to the developmental needs of participating individuals.

6. Developing leadership is a dynamic process no matter what the particular leadership position may be.

7. Teacher education institutions and school systems have a cooperative responsibility for identifying and preparing leaders.

8. Testing leadership in school situations provides values that differ from and supplement those afforded by tests dependent upon verbalization, since leadership potential reveals itself in both insight and in overt behavior.

9. In the selection of official leaders, groups affected by the leadership position should participate in the process of selection.

10. Leaders should be selected and nurtured on the basis of competence.

Identification of Potential Leaders

Persons appointed to leadership positions should have teaching and other experiences related to the particular kind of position, as well as formal educational preparation for the goal in mind. How does one get into an official position? What series of circumstances have placed leaders where they are? What motivates persons to become leaders?

Existing Practices in Leadership Identification

One practice, all too prevalent, is that of selecting as the elementary school principal, a high school teacher with no elementary school experience or education. In some cases, it seems more important that the potential leader have the "inside track" than that he have specialized preparation and leadership experience. Political expedience and knowing the right person are still far too powerful as selection factors.

Too many persons in official leadership roles have not had special educational preparation for the position they occupy. It is still commonplace for graduate students to specialize in general administration rather than in secondary or elementary school administration and supervision, hoping eventually to become a superintendent of schools. Often supervisors and principals are selected for positions in a school system without reference to their graduate study and without knowledge of the nature and quality of such study.

Factors that contribute to leadership competence are so complex that one cannot generalize as to the background and experience that best contribute to that competence in all cases. Performance in the situation, as evidenced in an individual's contribution to the school system, may be more significant than college courses taken. Yet the pattern of education and the educational objectives pursued certainly have a bearing on such competence.

Principals, superintendents, supervisors and curriculum directors are drawn from a great many sources. Variations among these sources are desirable. It is well also to try to identify the most valuable kinds of preparatory experiences for such leaders.

There are great variations in the ways by which official leaders gain promotions in school systems. Many schools depend upon the board of education or the superintendent to do the selecting, while in others the teaching staff participates. Some schools are trying to work out sound procedures and policies for selecting and preparing leaders. In such systems, there is awareness of the value of teaching experience and of the *kind* of teaching experience with respect to both range and quality that suits the goals in mind. Some programs provide for "tryout" opportunities. Some school systems and individual schools rotate leadership among staff members, providing opportunities for teachers to exercise leadership in both delegated and self-initiated responsibilities.

This whole process of selection of leaders directly affects teachers' reactions to leadership and their use of leadership services. Teachers respect leadership chosen for its ability to provide real help, to reflect skill in teaching, and to bring insight to bear on their problems. If teachers are aware that for extraneous reasons a mediocre teacher has been appointed as a supervisor, they will undoubtedly make few demands upon that supervisor's time. Leadership that is chosen for its ability leads to cooperative improvement programs and to requests for services; leadership chosen for other reasons leads to the issuing of edicts and probably a continued use of some outmoded pattern of supervision. It is important, therefore, to get the teachers' perspectives as to what is significant in the selection of instructional leaders.

Problems in Recognition of Leadership Capacity

In order to select leaders intelligently, a first step is to identify the special competencies needed for specific leadership positions. The scope of the leadership task for instructional improvement points to the general background areas in which the individual will need skills. He will need skills in public relations, curriculum development, instruction, human relations, preparation of instructional materials and counseling. His skill in following should also be assessed, as well as his vision, values and consistency. Important, too, are the individual's reactions to other people, his self-acceptance, his acceptance of others, how he sees himself in relation to a line or a staff position, and his attitude toward the kinds of situations or communities with which he may have to deal.

Recognition of leadership depends both upon the selector's recognition of who has potential to serve as an authoritarian leader or a benevolent despot and who can serve effectively as a democratic leader. In short, perceptions of the role of leadership affect who is chosen, the criteria by which selection is made, and the nature of the experiences in the leadership preparation and in-service programs.

One problem in the recognition of leadership potential is the fact that tryout or screening experiences may not always be valid. After a person is appointed to an official position, he may have a different perception of himself in this new role. As a result, he may behave differently toward others than he did in a tryout experience. It is difficult to predict how people will react to positions of power and prestige. Some evidence exists which indicates that matching persons with criteria does not always result in a selection of desirable leaders. A candidate's perceptions are, therefore, important.

In a selection process that attempts to recognize leadership potential, what happens to those individuals who do not exhibit the required competencies that would cause them to be selected for official positions? It would be unfortunate if they could not be helped in finding the kinds of activities which would give them a feeling of contributing to the group. Only if leadership is viewed as something apart from a situation can we conclude that a person cannot exercise leadership under any circumstances. Chapter Two holds that a person is a leader only in certain situations and only if he is recognized as such by a group. Everyone cannot be an official leader in a school system, but every good teacher is a leader in his teaching situation. His leadership abilities can also be utilized in numerous other ongoing activities of instructional improvement.

It is a real educational waste that persons with marked leadership potential sometimes are not recognized. Selection processes used in schools have undoubtedly bypassed some fine leaders. There is a vast resource for leadership within the teaching profession. The kinds of screening procedures, opportunities for emerging leadership, and delegated leadership responsibilities described in this chapter tend to lessen such waste. Leadership by the staff is utilized extensively, and many persons participate in the identification process.

Another problem is that of failure to be objective in recognizing potential for official leadership. We need leaders who operate democratically but who are essentially unique individuals. Most of us are likely to favor a person who is somewhat like us and does things in a way we would do them ourselves. It is often difficult for the selectors to maintain the necessary objectivity that will enable them to recognize leadership potential in widely differing personalities. Yet rewards of such objective selection are real and tangible. It reduces the likelihood of inbreeding, and increases the resources from which emerge fresh points of view for the exploration and creative solution of problems.

An Environment That Encourages Emerging Leadership

Chapter Two describes the basic responsibilities of leadership. The fourth task of official leaders indicated is their obligation to create conditions conducive to the emergence of leadership from the group. In spite of the difficulties facing those who seek to recognize leadership potential, there are many things that can be done.

Leadership can be recognized and tested only in the kinds of situations in which it is expected to function. Thus it becomes extremely important for the school system to provide the kind of environment that encourages many people to exercise leadership. Situations to test leadership at its best should be found in the setting of the daily functioning of schools in which there is cooperative work toward the improvement of instruction. The official leaders help the staff move ahead by presenting ideas, assisting the group in clarification of its purposes, sharing the leadership tasks with others, and bringing issues and problems to the attention of the group. On the other hand, where the official leader plays a "prima donna" role, there is little opportunity for leadership to emerge or to be tested. If he does not trust others, for example, to exercise responsibility in curriculum improvement, the possibility that the teacher can give leadership is considerably narrowed.

In an environment that encourages emerging leadership, official leaders and other staff members recognize that persons differ in the kinds of contributions they can make. The principal and supervisor help individual teachers realize their highest potential and utilize their strengths in giving pupils a learning experience of high quality. They arrange and organize conditions that will help each staff member to do his best work. A characteristic of this environment is the kind of social climate that exists in the school. Are associations on a friendly and informal basis? Are cliques few? Do people like to work together and feel free to disagree without fear of personal offense? In such an environment the supervisor or principal works with his teachers on curriculum study. He takes positive action on recommendations made by committees working on instructional improvement because he trusts them to come up with decisions that are right for the group. He sets clearly defined limits on the actions and decisions which committees or faculties can make. Such activities of coordination illustrate the concept set forth in Chapter Two regarding the official leader's function in synchronizing rather than dominating the efforts of the group and thus making it possible for leadership to emerge.

Need for Early Identification of Potential Official Leaders

If helpful guidance and well-planned activities are to be provided for the preparation of potential official leaders, then early identification is of critical importance. Various members of the school system have roles to play in the identification process. Administrators and supervisors exercise key roles.

Early identification of possible official leaders is not without its dangers. In some schools the persons so identified are said to be "in the groove" and are regarded with suspicion. The effect of screening out certain individuals must be anticipated and planned for. Those overlooked may tend to throw up roadblocks. More studies are needed as to what pre-selection does to the individual selected and to his relations with others. Does it in any way serve to render him ineffective in helping others to achieve their goals? These are important human relations aspects of a leadership selection process.

Self-identification is a possibility that needs further exploration. It is related to the individual's perceptions of self. How does the potential official leader see himself functioning in different leadership situations? What does he feel about his relationships with others? Does he have some confidence in his ability to give leadership under difficult circumstances, for example, when people resent even being given an opportunity to participate in policy making or when they regard such participation as a mere sham used by a leader to achieve his own ends?

Situations To Test Potential Leaders and Improve Leadership Ability

Illustrative of the kinds of experiences that not only make it possible for leadership to emerge but also function as a "testing" ground for potential candidates for official positions are the following:

1. *School systems are providing experiences with committees of various kinds, school and system-wide, that afford opportunity for practice as chairman, recorder or member, and suggest ways of studying problems and reaching solutions.*

Faculty committees are significant sources for the discovery of leadership potential. More and more schools are using the techniques of group thinking and operation in the study of their professional concerns and in the development of the school program.

Teacher committees are organized to plan and conduct faculty meetings, to study a particular curriculum problem, to meet the needs of children, to plan for an exhibit or special program involving the whole school or a group of classes, to work with the PTA on the preparation of a handbook for new pupils and their parents, or to serve as an advisory committee to the principal on the school's policies and procedures. The value of such committees for leadership discovery and development are directly related to such factors as these: (a) the extent to which the committees deal with concerns of importance to the teachers themselves; (b) the degree to which committee membership and operation are democratically handled; and (c) the perceptiveness of those who do the selecting.

In recent years many school systems have utilized system-wide committee approaches for program improvement. The values of these committees in leadership development are much the same as those previously stated, with the further advantages that the experience and perspective of the individual members are broadened.

Some cities, for instance, make effective and well-coordinated use of a series of teacher committees for system-wide curriculum development. These school systems permit each school to express its reactions to curriculum planning, and thus provide still another means of leadership identification and development.

One large city system uses a continuing organization of seven staff advisory committees and a central coordinating committee. These committees deal with curriculum, in-service education, elementary and high school load and program, staff personnel, pupil personnel and public relations. In addition to their advisory functions they serve for recruitment and training of leadership. This system has found that more supervisory and administrative positions are filled from the membership of these committees than from among any comparable number of staff workers.

Another school system reports that every aspect of its school philosophy and operation has emerged from committee work and that in such leadership roles a teacher's competence in working with his peers quickly becomes evident. In this system there is also in operation a divisional arrangement, with teachers as chairmen of the divisions. Each chairman sits in on the general planning committee sessions, where all in-service plans are made, and leads the work in each division.

The extent to which committee activity tends to cultivate leadership depends on how committees are created. It is important that committee members be sympathetic with the task of the committee and that they identify themselves with it in purpose and interest. Otherwise committee activity will neither be productive nor yield potential leadership returns.

2. *School systems are providing experiences with groups that de-*

velop understandings of human relationships and skill in working productively with people.

In recent years much interest has been expressed and considerable research has occurred in the field of human relations. As a consequence, a new dimension and requirement of leadership has been added—the acquisition of insights and skills in human relations and in working productively with groups.

Some schools are arranging for their official leaders to gain the needed knowledges and skills of group techniques and are helping all staff members to become sensitive to effective ways of working together. The use of adequate group procedures in meetings and other activities contributes to the discovery of potential leaders since in such situations members of the group share in the planning, rotate roles of responsibility, and help to evaluate.

Some of the actual practices used by school systems in this phase of leadership development include: studying the extensive literature in group dynamics; sending staff representatives to conferences such as the annual meetings of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, where group techniques are implemented in the program; sending individuals in key positions to the Bethel summer conferences for intensive training in group leadership; bringing in consultant help to work with the staff; organizing leadership-development workshops or institutes for the staff; and developing leadership resource materials locally for the total staff.

3. *School systems are emphasizing experiences at the individual school level that give opportunity for the assumption of responsibility in improving the program and helping the personnel.*

Many activities that are essential parts of the classroom teacher's program give valuable training in leadership abilities and skills. The school system that is concerned with discovering and building leadership strength within its staff consciously uses such opportunities.

In most schools leadership is exercised when different members of the faculty serve as sponsors of the safety activities, the Junior Red Cross program, and the various other clubs for pupils. In addition, some teachers demonstrate their strength in working with particular parts of the program such as science, arithmetic or art. These aptitudes receive recognition when teachers are used as resource persons for the entire faculty. Other teachers have the ability to work with newcomers to the staff, supervise student teachers or act as demonstration teachers. Teachers come to be known by the community for their special competence and skill in developing relationships with children and parents, or for their high degree of success as influential teachers.

In one state, members of a local organization of the department of elementary school principals, while studying the principalship, compiled a list of duties that prepare for leadership positions. This group identified a series of teaching activities that contribute to the individual's competence in instruction and thus aid in preparing him for the responsibilities of the principalship that are related to the improvement of instruction. These duties include teaching experiences varied as to grade level and pupil ability levels; selecting and organizing resource materials to be used in the classroom or throughout the school; using community resources in teaching; enriching the instructional program through demonstrations, intervisitations, supervision of student teaching; aiding in evaluation of curriculum materials and planning and conducting curriculum meetings; using tests and other evaluative measures and interpreting and using the results in subsequent classroom instruction; using special resources such as the visiting teacher or the guidance counselor.

4. *School systems are encouraging experiences in community participation that contribute to community well-being, give the potential leader training in working with community agencies and services, and contribute to improvement of the school program.*

Civic participation and the skills of effective communication with lay groups constitute areas of competence important to dynamic leadership.

In its apprenticeship program, one city has provided opportunities for prospective leaders to work in the field of public information. They write releases of school news for the local newspapers, occasional magazine articles, and brochures. They broadcast a weekly school news program over a local radio station and have helped produce a sound-color movie demonstrating a phase of the curriculum. Opportunity has also been given to prospective leaders to participate in the community citizens committee.

Membership in local organizations and leadership of such groups as the Girl Scouts, Boy Scouts, Campfire Girls, YMCA, YWCA, or Red Cross, and participation in local organizations that deal with civic and social service problems such as urban renewal and mental hygiene, are additional types of community activity that schools utilize to help build leadership skills. Teachers often voluntarily identify themselves with such activities, and by doing so indicate potential and receive helpful leadership experience.

5. *School systems are sponsoring experiences with professional organizations and activities that extend the potential leader's insights and interests beyond the local school situation and encourage professional growth and contribution to the profession.*

Through their personnel policies and professional development budgets, many school systems are encouraging members of their staffs to attend state, regional and national conferences and to work actively with professional organizations. Without doubt, new perspectives and insights are gained in this way. Such representation from school systems is being drawn increasingly from the teaching ranks as well as from the leadership group. Representatives are often selected by democratic processes within the school system. One school system makes possible all-expense trips to national meetings for a number of teachers each year. Many systems pay expenses of individuals and teams to summer institutes, workshops and conferences. Professional organizations, too, are making important contributions to leadership development by planning and carrying on activities that give the members a variety of contacts and involve them in many learning situations.

6. *School systems are encouraging people to work on professional problems at the experimental or research level.*

Chapter Two, in discussing the task of leadership in facilitating the teaching-learning process, emphasizes the importance of experimentation as a means of securing change both in individuals and in institutions. The responsibility of the leader for the encouragement of action research is stressed.

More and more, classroom teachers are being involved in experimental and research activities that bear on their professional problems. Sometimes this occurs when graduate students, seeking to extend their own resources for research or experimentation, request the help of school systems and enlist the cooperation of other classroom teachers. This type of research may involve the teachers' participation in actual classroom experimentation.

Another approach to experimentation or research occurs at the initiative of the individual school staff or of an individual teacher. Typically, such experimentation is undertaken when a faculty or teacher experiences a strong concern about a persistent school problem. The reluctant learner, the child with learning problems in one or more curriculum areas, the gifted or talented child—all have problems that give the teacher great concern. Interest is increased by comparing the effectiveness of varying methods, such as individualized reading versus the use of basal readers. Teachers often are stimulated to try out new content in the curriculum—some new phase of science or some new technique in a foreign language. The role of the established leader in offering guidance and support for such experimentation and action research is often fundamental to the worth of the activity, both in itself and for the development of the staff members involved.

Activities such as this reveal potentiality for leadership development. They provide opportunities for interested teachers to demonstrate dedication to achieving a goal, mental abilities and alertness, skill in communicating, skill in human relations, and specific knowledge of the area in which a group is working. They help to indicate whether the person observed is the kind of person to whom others will naturally and freely turn with their problems.

Process of Selection of Official Leaders

As various kinds of situations are used to test and develop leadership competencies, the selection process is simplified whether the objective is one of finding a leader emerging from within the group, transferring from one position to another, or recruiting from outside the school system. It is often desirable to select administrative and supervisory personnel from more than one source. Choices of leadership from the outside may enable the school system to capitalize on the richness of experiences and ideas that a new person may bring to his new job.

If the administration adheres to the policy of selecting all leaders from within the local staff, there is danger of provincialism and the possibility of political or special interest pressure in the selection of official leaders. On the other hand, if there seems to be little opportunity for advancement within the system, some of the outstanding potential leaders may be lost to other school systems and dissatisfaction may result. The opportunity to develop future official leaders by a well-planned program of experiences and more formalized inservice education presents itself only if there is an actual possibility that teachers within the school system may be selected. Many school systems feel that a combination of the two sources makes for the best leadership selection possibilities.

Selection of the Leader for a Particular Situation

A primary consideration in selecting school leaders should be to fit the person to the school situation in which he can best exercise effective leadership, a practice consistent with the situational theory of leadership. The kind of community, the pupils' abilities and backgrounds, the experience and values of the staff and the background of study (or lack of it) of curriculum problems are factors to be considered. Leaders should be selected also in terms of their potentiality for helping the people of the school community define and reach their educational goals.

The process of selection and education should start with an analysis of (a) the situation in which leadership is to function and (b) the individual's background. This analysis determines the criteria to be used for the position to be filled against which the candidates' competencies can be evaluated. When analyzing a person's past experience in teaching and administration, it is important to consider the variety and type of experience and its pertinence to the leadership job to be performed. The candidate's own vision, philosophy of education, knowledge of fundamental concepts of children's growth and learning, values with regard to encouraging emerging leadership, and his general point of view of leadership are all significant.

In places where the vice-principalship is regarded as a training ground for the principalship, definite measures are taken to give these less experienced leaders opportunity to work in more than one type of community and with more than one principal. This variation in experience tends to broaden the young leader's perspective and abilities and to reveal the kinds of situations in which he will probably operate most successfully.

Concern for fitting the individual to the situation is reflected in one city's internship plan. The program of leadership development is keyed to the particular characteristics of the potential leader and his future assignment. These characteristics determine the elements included in his preparatory program.

In this process of discovering the best leader for a specific situation, it is of importance to a school system that there be close and regular contacts among the administrative staff and the teachers. To accomplish this purpose in a relatively compact system is much easier than in a larger system. In one system with more than 30 schools, the superintendent meets annually with the faculty and principal of each elementary and junior high school and with the teachers of senior high schools at departmental meetings, discussing with them their problems and interests.

The Interview as Part of the Process

The value of the interview technique can be illustrated by an occurrence in one school system that was seeking a person to direct some action research in elementary curriculum. Several excellent classroom teachers were recommended for this opening.

Through interviews it became evident that these teachers had diverse qualifications for the position. One seemed unaware of curricular problems needing investigation. Another showed fundamental lacks in the skills and concepts required to process objective data statistically. The third revealed an alertness to perplexing instructional questions for which more definite solutions were needed and evidenced considerable mathematical skill of the type that research requires. A fourth showed some limitations in his concept of the teachers' role in action research and of how he would work with them. The directors of research, personnel and elementary education who participated in these interviews not only gained clear-cut guidance as to their selection but also increased materially their understanding of the applicants.

Staff Participation in the Process

Increasingly in recent years, staff members have participated in the selection of leaders. Such participation presents problems which are far outweighed by the opportunities it affords. The teachers who participate have an opportunity to express what they deem to be important qualifications for the leader. In no other way can the teachers' perceptions of leadership be as readily secured.

Staff participation in leader identification is illustrated in an eastern city where a newly appointed principal was selected by the faculty of a school where a vacancy existed. The teachers worked with consultants to acquaint themselves with the criteria for a good administrator, considered the various applicants, agreed on Miss X as their new principal, and made appropriate recommendations to the superintendent.

Another city system reports on the selection of its administrators. Such selection is based on staff reactions informally gathered, administrative and school board judgment, job analysis carefully related to the persons in question, and use of outside consultants. The subtle influence of staff opinions about the persons in question has ranked high, though no formal open discussions have been held and no votes have ever been taken.

Experimental Techniques in Selecting Leaders

As school systems seek better ways of selecting their leaders, more experimental use is being made of various kinds of standardized tests. Some systems couple the use of the teacher's professional examination with an administrative and supervisory examination. While the results of such tests should not be the single basis upon which promotional recognition is accorded, they can sometimes provide supplementary information that may be useful for screening purposes.

Many school systems have worked with members of the supervisory and teaching staff to develop criteria for the selection of leaders for various positions. The results have frequently been useful locally for the screening and the evaluation of administrative personnel. The results, however, have had limited national influence because they have revealed a great diversity not only in approach, but also in concepts of administrative function and behavior and in the nature of the administrative situation involved.

A significant and promising research undertaking in this area is currently in process. This project is seeking, on a more fundamental and widespread basis, to analyze the dimensions of school administration, to define the job of the school administrator, and to develop an instrument for the selection of school administrators. This project, known as "The Development of Criteria of Success in School Administration Project," is being supported by the Cooperative Research Program of the U. S. Office of Education, and is being carried on by a research team from the University Council for Educational Administration and the Educational Testing Service (2). The administrative position identified for study is that of the elementary principalship.

The research project is using a simulated situational test technique. It does not study a variety of administrative positions with many different administrators. Rather, a standardized administrative situation has been devised in which approximately 250 school principals have been asked to record their experiences. In preparation, the research team created a simulated school system and a simulated elementary school which was based upon a thoroughgoing survey of a carefully selected school. A motion picture of the school and its program, a filmstrip of the community, a teacher's handbook, the policies and regulations of the board of education, report cards and other printed forms were used to make this simulated situation real to the participants. Approximately eight groups of representative elementary school principals have been involved, with all parts of the country represented in the choice of the cooperating school systems. Prior to a workshop experience a battery of tests was administered to each participant: intelligence, professional information, psychological abilities, interest inventory and a personality measure. Through the use of a check list, evaluations were secured from the principal's own faculty and from his superior officers.

Each of these groups then spent a five-day period in which each principal became, to all intents and purposes, Marion Smith, principal of the simulated Whitman School. In the early part of the workshop, time was devoted to learning about the school through the audio-visual and printed materials. The remainder of the time was spent in reacting to typical situations confronting the principal during a hypothetical school year. Such activities included: handling the daily mail; preparing and delivering an address to the PTA; receiving reports, notes and phone calls; meeting emergency situations; supervising in classrooms (made possible through sound movies and tape recordings); participating in faculty conferences; working with the custodial staff; and carrying on other typical activities of the elementary school principal. To each of these situations the participant was asked to respond as the principal of the school. The research team devised many ways of recording these responses.

The data thus gathered are scored in a number of categories, studied and analyzed. From the tremendous amount of material gathered, from the large number of principals involved, and on the basis of meticulous research procedures, the project directors hope that a better understanding of the nature of the elementary principalship may be gained, that the dimensions in administration may be more accurately perceived, and that a selection instrument for elementary principals may result.

Another outcome, not originally projected, is becoming apparent as this research project goes forward. The impact of the simulated situational technique upon the experienced school leaders involved has proved stimulating, interest-compelling, and productive of increased professional competence. The situations presented in the research project are typical of the everyday activities of the elementary principal, and their reality provides another reason for the effectiveness of this procedure as an in-service growth activity. Many of the concrete materials developed for the research project would be as useful for education on the job as for screening purposes. Several graduate schools are contemplating summer workshops for administrative personnel, in which this simulated situational technique will be used. There are indications of widening interest in this type of activity.

A Comprehensive Program of Selection

In the process of selecting supervisors and administrators, schools are tending toward a broad program in which are blended the opportunities for leadership afforded by the school system, the selection of the individual for an official position, and in-service education for potential and appointed leaders.

In a comprehensive program of selection are included (a) periodic job analysis; (b) establishment of criteria for the position, frequently by committees representing a cross section of school personnel; (c) written tests in administration, supervision and curriculum and, less frequently, tests of general culture, personality and mental ability; (d) situational tests for evaluating judgments, attitudes and human relations factors; (e) individual and group interviews; (f) screening committees composed of central staff, principals and teachers; (g) ratings by supervisors and teachers; (h) an apprenticeship used as both a learning and tryout experience; (i) in-service education in the form of workshops and seminars.

School systems are widening the range of possible candidates for promotion by inviting those who are interested to apply. Announcement of vacant posts, accompanied by a description of each position and a statement of requirements for eligibility, may be sent to colleges, universities and professional organizations throughout the nation. Members of the school system similarly may be informed of prospective openings through staff newsletters or other forms of announcement and invited to apply. The screening processes for such applicants, described in the preceding paragraph, are then employed. This method of identifying candidates serves to maintain a balance between the use of local persons and those drawn from outside the system. It contributes to good morale by giving staff members full opportunity to express leadership interests and demonstrate qualifications. It tends, also, to produce a stronger leadership staff than might be possible when official leaders alone decide who shall be considered for available positions.

In one large county school system a single program that encompasses careful selection procedures and in-service education opportunities is being developed in cooperation with the state university. Twenty-five or more administrative and supervisory personnel are selected each year, largely from within the school system. Any teacher who holds a master's degree and has five years of teaching experience may submit an application for admission to the program of leadership development. All candidates are first given examinations prepared by the Educational Testing Service on administration and supervision and in the special content area for a supervisory position. For the persons earning satisfactory scores, interviews are scheduled with a team consisting of a supervisor, a principal, a teacher and the assistant superintendent. Recommendations and evaluations are secured from the candidate's principal and a supervisor.

Individuals screened by this procedure are interviewed by the superintendent and members of his staff and representatives from the university staff, and a number of candidates for internships are thus selected. These positions are financed largely by the school system and partially by the university through part-time graduate assistantships. For a year the interns [1] are assigned to various tasks in the central office and in the schools working with competent leaders in learning about the school system and its leadership tasks.

An important part of the program is the in-service education provided for three groups: (a) the interns who become candidates for doctoral degrees; (b) the newly appointed principals and supervisors; and (c) teachers who wish to become administrators or supervisors. In all of these phases, the university and the school system cooperate.

The Preparation of Leaders

The process of discovery and selection of leaders for instructional improvement, relating as it does to the means of encouraging and nurturing emerging leadership, involves many of the important elements which also contribute to their preparation. Preparation includes the formal preservice preparation received in a college or university and the in-service preparation obtained in a school system. Obviously, in the better situations these two aspects are blended.

Although procedures and practices are analyzed in this presentation, the education of a potential leader is a highly individual matter in which an individual's needs are recognized. Programs must be tailored to fit each person's background.

---

[1] See pages 149-50 for further discussion of internships.

Changes in the nature of leadership roles have created a pressing need for in-service education of supervisors, principals, superintendents and others in official positions. The ability to run a "smooth" school no longer suffices.

Graduate Education for Leaders

The variation in the character of the school superintendency is an illustration of the changing role of a particular position and the consequent expansion in the skills required. The concept of the position of school superintendent in the United States has steadily expanded. Now his responsibilities extend beyond those of the chief school administrator to encompass functions of community leadership. The skills involved have shown a like expansion. In the professional preparation program, they place new demands upon both the individual being educated and upon the institutions under whose direction and resources the leadership development is occurring.

The Cooperative Program in Educational Administration represents a serious and concerted attack upon the problem of identifying the scope of the school superintendency, analyzing the skills involved, and experimenting along lines designed to increase the effectiveness of the program of preparation in the past decade. Particular progress along these lines has been made through national, regional and local efforts and through the cooperation of foundations, professional organizations, universities and local school systems. A good deal of pioneering practice has resulted, although the problem of preparation for this particular leadership job still requires greater attention.

Moore (7) summarizes some 62 documents dealing with the preparation of school administrators. In its Thirty-Seventh Yearbook, the American Association of School Administrators outlines some basic considerations and some proposals for broadly conceived preparatory programs (1). It is evident that graduate schools are making creative approaches in the field of preparing the school superintendent for his evolving role.

Education for leadership is regarded as a process that begins in early formal schooling and continues as long as the person holds a position of responsibility. The leadership opportunities that a student has in elementary school, high school and college are a valuable part of his background. This chapter is concerned with the relation of programs of preparation both at the graduate and in-service level to previous preparation. It is at this level that most teachers identify their interest in becoming principals, supervisors or other official leaders. It is here, too, that programs planned for the education of administrators and supervisors exist in colleges and universities.

One of the important principles illustrated by recent developments is that to be prepared for leadership the individual needs some breadth and depth of understanding of instructional processes, of human relations and of social issues. It is of interest to note that studies of the school principalship, conducted at a southwestern university, showed that candidates for leadership positions were weakest in the broad fields of economic and scientific principles and understanding of current world problems (5).

A large university in the Middle Atlantic area in 1954 developed a comprehensive plan for the preparation of school administrators at the graduate level. The entire program is designed to help students gain insight into the broad principles of leadership and to enable them to exercise leadership skills. All students in educational administration first take a course in general administration. It aims to develop a basic understanding of the process of cooperative planning, with emphasis on the importance of human relations. Principles of psychology, sociology, economics and anthropology are applied to problems encountered by administrators as they plan cooperatively with persons in the community, with the staff and with regard to teacher-pupil relationships. The basic course is followed by one stressing human relations in the classroom.

Another course in the planned series was tried out on an experimental basis. An assumption was made that earning or taking advantage of community support, or of community leader understanding, is the least understood phase of the planning process. The course, therefore, aims at developing an understanding of the steps in long-range administrative planning and the utilization of planning resources, mastering the techniques of mass communication, and understanding the structure and social forces which operate in the community. It makes extensive use of outstanding school administrators as well as of experts in various fields such as romance languages, communications, sociology, social psychology and cultural anthropology. Other courses in the program are planned and modification of existing courses is taking place. Each student's program is individually tailored, emphasizing independent study and effort in five major fields instead of requiring a fixed number of course credits.

A graduate program for leadership education is much more than course work. The earning of 60 to 90 credit hours may constitute a valuable sequential base, but something more is needed. The program should encompass a planned variety of experiences other than those attained through taking courses. Indeed, there should also be rigorous planning with regard to the kinds of experiences that are desirable within the courses, for the curriculum deals with the *quality* of experiences that a student has. The type of experiences and leadership activities afforded a graduate student will be important in shaping his concepts and techniques of leadership.

Both courses and other planned experiences should supplement the graduate student's previous professional background. The inflexible requirement of so many credit hours as a minimum to fit all candidates is not tenable in view of the differences that exist. Some students may need a great many experiences in a different school, group and individual situation. Others, who have not become specialists in a specific discipline and have had only smatterings of courses, may need to plan rather extensive programs in such fields as sociology, psychology or educational philosophy.

In the doctoral program for the preparation of curriculum directors and supervisors at a New England university, various activities are planned with the candidates as a part of their program. These may include teaching college classes, participating in workshops, serving in a leadership capacity in curriculum conferences, writing for professional journals, studying a community, planning with teachers and taking part in school evaluations and surveys. They are planned with the experience background of the individual in mind. Furthermore, for the Ph.D. degree, a student may present two "skills" in collateral fields of knowledge in place of the traditional foreign language requirement.

Leadership training is illustrated in another university program carried on with the assistance of the Southwestern Cooperative Program in Educational Administration. This is a summer activity in which the student practices important administrative skills needed by a superintendent or principal. Members of the group then help plan, observe and evaluate the activity as some of their number carry it through. Field trips and other off-campus activities such as a three-day community survey are included. Every student takes a comprehensive battery of tests and has special help, if needed, in reading and in speech situations met by school administrators.

Some universities on the west coast have developed six-year programs in school administration—two years of graduate work built on the four years of undergraduate work. The emphasis in such programs is on behavior competencies as well as subject competencies. The program of study is fitted to the individual's background of experience and training. It involves courses in school administration; knowledge of the instructional program and educational evaluation, with supporting courses in social foundations, human development, communications and philosophy. Field experiences in administration are provided through cooperative arrangements with school systems.

Trends in University and College Programs

Traditional programs in preparation of school administrators stressed administrative procedures and technical knowledge, while few planned programs existed for the preparation of supervisors. Modern programs, however, look quite different. Semantics, group dynamics, learning theory, human development, communications, human relations all become important factors in the preparation of leaders under a theory that stresses roles, interrelationships among people, and their perceptions of each other.

The following trends can be noted in the preparation of leaders that hold great promise for further experimentation and development.

1. *Use of field situations to enrich preparatory programs.*—A major change permeating the experimental programs is an increased emphasis on student participation, from planning and evaluating in courses to systematic internships. Observation and participation in school board meetings, staff meetings, committee work, parent study groups, experimental projects, curriculum workshops, school study councils and supervision of student teachers all provide realistic kinds of situations which can give a high quality of carefully selected experiences.

For example, one state's program of education and certification for supervisors of instruction provides for a three-way responsibility, by the county superintendent, the graduate school of the university, and the state department of education. A vital part of the work is guided practice on the job, for which a list of essential experiences has been developed and during which supervision is given. This practice, coupled with basic courses in human development, supervision, evaluation and research, and courses designed to meet the special needs of the supervisor for particular fields, constitutes the program of study.

2. *Provision for internship programs*—Internship programs are among the most promising means for providing realistic experiences in actual field situations. Although most internship programs for educational leaders have developed since World War II, they now exist in many leading universities, especially in the fields of administration, supervision and guidance.

In one university, for example, an intern preparing to be a school supervisor is assigned to a practicing supervisor in a school system, to work for at least a year on a full-time basis. To the intern are delegated responsibilities which will assure that he has firsthand experience in the daily activities of a supervisor. An individual plan, prepared for each intern and used as a basis for periodic evaluation, helps to provide meaningful direction for these experiences.

In another university, interns work with administrative personnel in school systems. At the same time, they are in close contact with their university advisers. The resources of the practical school system and the theoretical overview of the university departments combine to strengthen the intern's program. An intern may serve as assistant to the superintendent of schools. Typically, he has several varied experiences. He may work half time for several months gathering data for the schools to report on a 10-year trend. Later, he may serve as a research assistant to a citizens advisory group studying the financing of the local schools. He may serve as resource person for a teacher committee exploring improved instruction for the exceptional children of the district. In each activity he will review in the university library the basic literature pertinent to the problem, talk with the appropriate professors, raise problems for discussion in the university seminar for interns.

Thus the internship not only provides necessary practical experience in leadership gained through service, but also provides practical help in an actual community situation. The transition from the kind of leadership exerted as a classroom teacher to the leadership expected of an administrator is smoothed and strengthened by the internship.

Similar plans are in operation at several universities. In some cases, however, internship planning and evaluation are based upon an instrument that lists experiences considered to be appropriate for interns rather than upon an individual plan developed by the intern, his university adviser, and the school supervisor. In some programs, provision is made for payment of each intern by the local school system in which the internship is established. In fact, one additional advantage of the internship program is found in the possibility it affords the student for some financial assistance while pursuing a program of advanced study. This, in effect, means that some promising young people find it possible to take advantage of the opportunity for leadership preparation when otherwise it could not be managed.

3. *Cooperative instruction by scholars in various disciplines*—In typical programs, graduate students preparing for school leadership positions take several courses in psychology or sociology. Providing for the active cooperation of instructors in the various behavioral sciences in such programs is of fairly recent origin. One university has been experimenting for the past five years with interdisciplinary seminars for the training of school administrators. Another university centers its interdisciplinary seminar around problems of administrators and supervisors on the job.

4. *Informal seminars*—In many cases the seminar is both replacing and supplementing some of the formal courses. Some are entitled "Leadership Seminar" and concentrate on the relevant research and literature. Quite naturally, these lend themselves to an interdisciplinary approach. The advantage of a seminar is its less rigid structure, the participation of several staff members, and the smaller groups of advanced students who tackle the problems of study.

In a program carried on at a midwestern state university for beginning school administrators, two sections of the extension program are in operation: one for school superintendents, the other for school principals. The program involves on-the-job experience with a seminar approach to educational leadership. The week-end sessions are related directly to the problems which these beginning administrators identify from their own activities. The resources of the university plus those of the state department of public instruction and of professional organizations are made available to the students as they seek to find solutions (4).

5. *Workshops*—Curriculum workshops in which members identify and deal with their own problems have proved valuable in preparing both supervisors and administrators. Evidence is available that such workshop participation does change behavior. Some universities require workshop experience as a part of the program of preparation for supervisors and curriculum leaders.

The Southwestern Cooperative Program in Educational Administration has sponsored a number of workshops in group leadership. There have also been an increasing number of workshops for school administrators, such as workshops in human development or in group dynamics dealing with specific administrative problems.

The Cooperative Program in Educational Administration, Middle Atlantic Region, annually offers a series of workshops for school board members. Participation by teams from nearby school systems is invited. The team usually consists of board members, the superintendent, a principal, and at times a teacher. The series is attended by graduate students who thereby learn leadership processes.

6. *Fusion of courses*—The current trend toward multiplication of courses may cause the potential administrator to take his preparation in bits. Such intermittent work—an evening for a semester at a time—may not add up to a total, integrated program. Some institutions have begun to offer school administrators a complete semester course which constitutes a full load. One 12-credit course in secondary education and curriculum might be the full-time student's program in the fall semester. A course called Foundations in Educational Administration, given at one university, is of this type. It covers a large block of time for an entire summer session (5).

A southern university offers a six semester hour graduate course in educational leadership. It is staffed by representatives from the administration, secondary, elementary, and foundations departments of the college of education. Research studies in leadership, leadership behavior, organization for emergent leadership, and evaluating educational leadership are the main areas of study. The class is conducted as a laboratory emphasizing human relations, productivity, communication, perception, and leadership behavior. Individual and group research projects are carried on in "out of class" situations such as with school classes, civic clubs, church groups and professional organizations.

7. *Use of a case study approach*—The case study may be used as a center for analysis and discussion of leadership situations. This method has drawn upon the techniques used successfully in law, medicine and business administration. It provides a "safe way" of testing in operation one's judgment, philosophy and theories. It lends itself admirably to the study of total situations in which various factors are considered. "Live" cases as well as those found in the literature can be used.

A graduate program in administration at a northern university has made considerable use of this approach. Students discuss and play the roles of administrators and supervisors in specific situations. Criticism of their behavior is offered by professors of various disciplines. The students then go on to field work in the schools as a next step in their preparation.

Trends in School In-Service Programs

There are some distinguishing characteristics of good in-service programs for leadership education.

1. *Relation of the in-service program to the experiential background*—In-service activities should be planned on an individual basis. It is assumed that the person should have experience background in the field in which he leads. Intensive internship programs should be provided for those who lack such experience. For example, an elementary school principal who has had little experience in elementary education would need a different in-service program from one who has had all his experience in that field. The certification requirements of state departments of education, particularly their inflexibility concerning this point, need critical analysis.

A study of the principalship has been conducted by the college of education in a southern university. High correlations were found to exist among democratic behavior of principals, better teacher and pupil attitudes and human relations, effective curriculum change, and favorable parental attitudes. In the belief that a planned program of education would result in increased democratic behavior, a three-year study has been initiated. The program includes a leadership course provided for principals in a county school system in the state. Stress is placed on leadership concepts such as those described in this yearbook and upon the relation of the individual's background to preparation needed for performing his work effectively.

2. *Cooperation of school systems, state departments of education and universities*—Several related state educational units are beginning to recognize their joint responsibility for the education of persons in school leadership positions. Some notable examples of such cooperation can be found. There are innumerable examples of schools and universities working together in local workshops. Where these conditions exist, one is more likely to find effective two-way communication between the institutions that prepare administrators and supervisors and the public schools, especially in such matters as study and review

of graduate programs and the selection of leadership personnel. For example, one university and a public school system cooperate in workshops for which each furnishes a codirector. The workshops carry university credit and the board of education subsidizes participants who are tackling special problems related to their work in the schools.

3. *Administrators' and supervisors' workshops and conferences*—Workshops especially planned for leadership personnel in local situations are common and useful media for cooperative in-service education. They provide desirable leadership training opportunities for the official leaders as well as the teachers. The participant should have the chance to serve in the capacity of leader or member of a steering, planning or working committee. Each kind of service will have value for him in the content and understandings dealt with, and in the skills of group involvement. The identification of goals through group thinking and the use of techniques of group planning and appraisal are aspects of the training offered by such participation.

It is desirable to provide some group experiences in which personnel in various assignments may participate. These provide for the extension of insights by permitting people to look at problems from the viewpoints of teachers, of department heads, of supervisors and of administrators. Regular and sequentially planned meetings of various groups of the staff, while set up for the growth-in-service of the staff, offer sound and helpful opportunities for the continuing development of the official leader.

These conferences provide opportunities for:

1. Continuing scrutiny of the curriculum in the light of commonly held concerns
2. Development of policies and plans on a system-wide basis
3. Consideration of pertinent professional literature, the findings of research, trends and practices elsewhere
4. Clarification of policies and the identification of unmet needs
5. Improvement of communication throughout the system.

In one large city, monthly meetings dealing with professional problems in elementary education are held, with all the elementary school principals and the over-all administrative staff present. The meetings are planned by members of the advisory committee of principals who involve other members of the elementary school staff in developing and presenting the programs.

Most school systems of considerable size annually close for a day or more of total staff conferences and use before-semester time for workshops. Many staff members participate in planning and carrying out these in-service programs.

4. *Experimentation and action research*—We need to discover more promising ways of facilitating the continuous growth of official leaders. As one example, experimentation with new procedures and creative ideas can be carried on by school systems in conjunction with consultants from universities engaged in the preparation of leaders. But experimentation is more than just trying out ideas. It also involves the development of hypotheses, gathering data, evaluating outcomes and disseminating results.

One such action research project was conducted in a school system by a group of principals and coordinators of the secondary schools, some central office personnel, and consultants from a university. This group studied the problem of improving the quality of instructional leadership. Teams tested out different ideas in their own schools and measured the growth of attitudes and insights. Many data were collected regarding leadership activities through the evaluation of the total leadership project (6).

Action research that improves the leader's perspective and skills might deal, however, with any problem important to the group. Comparatively few principals and supervisors have the know-how to carry on action research that demands rather rigorous examination of hypotheses, proposals for action, collection of data, and evaluation of results. Yet, it is a process which offers great possibilities for the growth of instructional leaders as they assist teachers individually and in groups in the improvement of their teaching.

5. *Various kinds of work experience*—It has been stressed throughout this chapter that the person selected as a leader should have experience in pertinent teaching in the classroom. It is desirable also for the potential leader to have work experience that extends beyond the environs of the school; for example, in business, industry, law, psychology, research and military service. Any experience that has led the person into close contact with the community and has helped him to know people—their thinking, their values and how they live—is an invaluable part of his education for any official school leadership position.

6. *Participation in study with teachers*—If official leaders are aware of the needs and opportunities, they can find rich experiences in work-

ing together with the teaching staff. Such cooperative experiences are for purposes of:

Keeping themselves and others informed about the program in the system

Studying ways to coordinate resource services available to the schools

Fostering experimental approaches to curriculum development

Appraising the instructional program

Studying specific problems that confront the school or school system

Working on problems of intergroup tensions and conflicts

Appraising the effectiveness of current supervisory services

Examining trends or locating promising experimentation

Determining policy as it relates to some instructional service

Studying with lay people and staff the needs of the system

Getting expert consultant help on problems pertinent to the local schools.

Growth occurs both for the official leader and for other staff members when the administrator or supervisor works *with* the staff. There is incalculable value in active participation in a study of problems of mutual concern and in arriving at policy decisions democratically.

Unmet Needs in Leadership Education

This chapter has emphasized basic considerations in the identification and nurture of leadership and has illustrated these with promising practices. In spite of the progress indicated, there are many unmet needs in the field of leadership development.

A major problem relates to the widespread and continuing need for school systems to develop better planned programs of leadership education. Too many of the present activities are piecemeal in nature. Many school systems simply do not develop a program of leadership preparation which provides opportunities for leadership experiences on a gradually increasing basis. There is need for long-term planning, consistency in follow-through, and continuous revision in the light of experience and the findings of research. The design and implementation of such a program of leadership discovery and development should be regarded as a fundamental obligation for every school system and as a responsibility in which both official leaders and staff members must share. Until this professional obligation is recognized and met, the limitations resulting from leadership waste and inadequacy will continue.

School systems and teachers colleges and universities need to recognize their obligation to cooperate in developing programs of leadership development and in increasing scientific knowledge in this field. This obligation involves not only techniques of shared planning; it also relates to what is worthy and useful content for the education of administrators and supervisors. While an interdisciplinary approach has been rather widely accepted in theory, in practice the use of psychological, sociological, anthropological and other scientific content has been fragmentary rather than integrated. Not yet has there been clear-cut agreement as to what are essential and comprehensive elements in the program. Too often leadership education activities have consisted of what seems to be good practice, without too much reference to fundamental philosophy and to the criteria by which the specifics of any local program may be determined or appraised. This chapter has indicated some promising developments along this line.

The major research projects described elsewhere in this chapter have been presented to show that some progress is being made in clarifying the expectancies of different types of leadership responsibility and in determining sound content for the preparatory programs in the light of these expectancies. Through such research studies, exploration is being made of cooperative approaches whereby the resources of institutions of higher learning and of school systems may properly reinforce each other in the development of leaders. More cooperative action research in such aspects as leadership selection is needed.

Chapter Three has discussed the relation between role perceptions and leadership effectiveness and suggested some new frontiers for leadership education. For example, we believe that human beings tend to behave in accordance with their concepts of self, and that self-concepts reflect the expectations that leaders and staff members have of each other and of the positions involved. It is evident, therefore, that administrators and supervisors should become informed in the field of role perception and should be sensitive to its implications for their work. They need to know how to use sociometric measures.

Chapter Two has outlined the tasks of leadership in building an organizational structure that promotes both group solidarity and group productivity. It has also described some of the roles, relationships and perceptions that are implicit in effective leadership. Again, universities and school systems may well share responsibilities. Teacher education institutions can provide the scientific background through which the insights regarding perception and role expectations may develop.

School systems need to clarify and refine their structure of leadership responsibility. Through job descriptions or other means, schools should make evident to all staff members the scope and function of the various leadership positions. They need to make explicit the duties and degree of responsibility attached to committees organized for the study of professional problems, perhaps through the simple device of stating the charge to the committee when it is first organized. Within this framework of understanding more effective teacher-leader relations will evolve.

While in many cases the ways of caring for our unmet needs are not readily apparent and require future research and study, in some other cases we know at least some solutions that we are not fully using. Two cases illustrate this. First are the ways to eliminate the human waste that occurs when leadership potential is not recognized and put to use, which are described in this chapter. A second illustration of a gap between present knowledge and its full use is the rapid transfer of principals from one school to another. We accept the fact that an official leader needs to stay in a given assignment, such as the principalship of a particular school, long enough to mature in it himself and to provide for the educational situation some continuity in leadership. Yet the exigencies of a rapid increase in pupil population, limitations in available personnel, or promotional considerations often bring about too-frequent changes in leadership assignments, with consequent loss to the program involved, and perhaps to the individual.

The place of guidance in leadership development has greater significance than present use might indicate. Many administrators and supervisors will testify gratefully concerning the guidance given them and can speak sincerely of the influence and direction which they, in turn, have given others. It is nonetheless true that this is usually informal and intuitive aid. Professional guidance of a planned, continuous and reflective nature, including warm, human interpersonal relationships, is the basis for a sound follow-up program of in-service education. Some school systems have emphasized the role of the personnel division as a source of guidance to staff members. Others, recognizing the value of such a plan, still feel a need for the close involvement of the principal and supervisor, who work directly with the staff member in his daily responsibilities. Thus, the potential leader gains direction without compulsion, and the individual who finds himself unsuited to official leadership positions is enabled without personal damage to sense his limitations.

A host of needs, ranging from the minute and specific to the broad and fundamental, require examination and solution as we seek full development of human potential through creating a favorable setting for a dynamic process of leadership nurture. The reader will supplement the needs here identified with other pressing problems and with solutions, adequate or inadequate, that may fall within his own experience. The present situation highlights the need for well-selected and well-prepared leaders who have clear convictions regarding the purposes of the public school and the society in which it exists. With informed convictions, we may not tend to get on the bandwagon every time the drums begin to beat.

A final test is the extent to which each of these plans for leadership growth results in the actual improvement of the instructional program for children. This is the real test of leadership, official or informal. Its evidence will be found in the quality of pupil learning and in the quality of human relations—pupil-pupil, pupil-teacher, teacher-principal, teacher-parent, teacher-community, supervisor-teacher. The entire process of identification, selection and education of leaders has as its end the improvement of instruction and the development of behavior that helps the teacher create the most effective learning situations.

Bibliography

1. AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS. *Educational Administration in a Changing Community.* Thirty-Seventh Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, a department of the National Education Association, 1959. 205 p.
2. GRIFFITHS, DANIEL E. "Development of Criteria of Success in School Administration." Unpublished Report to University Council for Educational Administration. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, February 1959. 10 p. (Mimeo.)
3. GRIFFITHS, DANIEL E. *Human Relations in School Administration.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1956. 458 p.
4. HANSFORD, BYRON, and FRED VESCOLANI. "Talking Shop at Weekend Seminars." *School Executive* 77:56-58; April 1958.
5. MCINTYRE, KENNETH E. *Learning in a Block-of-Time Program.* Austin, Texas: Southwest School Administration Center, 1957. 94 p.

6. Mackenzie, Gordon N.; Stephen M. Corey; and associates. *Instructional Leadership*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1954. 209 p.

7. Moore, Hollis A., Jr. *Studies In School Administration*. Washington, D. C.: American Association of School Administrators, a department of the National Education Association, 1957. 202 p.

CHAPTER SIX

APPRAISAL: A METHOD FOR IMPROVING INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP

PRECEDING chapters have presented in some detail the need for democratic leadership so that instruction in schools will improve. They have described the conditions under which leadership is likely to be effective, the techniques used by successful leaders in widely varying situations, and the problems inherent in discovering and developing potential instructional leaders. This chapter focuses attention on the use of appraisal processes to improve educational leadership. It is designed to help superintendents, curriculum directors, supervisors, principals, teachers and interested lay citizens answer the question, "How can we use what we already know, or discover what we need to know, to improve the quality of leadership for instruction?"

Developing and Using Appraisal Processes

In most school systems information is already available for making intelligent judgments about the quality of leadership for instruction. School leaders should realize at the outset, nevertheless, that securing and interpreting the data which are needed to appraise leadership for instruction is not a simple task. The problem is complex. Reasons for this are the following: (a) leadership is a developmental process, (b) widely varying situations require custom-made appraisal procedures, and (c) teaching-learning processes are complex. In spite of the difficulties involved, leadership for instruction is not likely to improve much until steps are taken to look critically at present practices in terms of values held.

Leader Behaviors Are Aspects of a Developmental Process

As indicated in Chapter Two, leadership is never static—rather, it is always in process of developing. The behavior of leaders, therefore, must be deemed to be effective, mediocre or poor in terms of the extent to which agreements are reached concerning educational goals and the extent to which progress is made toward the goals. As intelligent people work and think together in defining, clarifying and achieving goals, the goals themselves undergo modification. Goals, therefore, should be viewed as guideposts to work toward—not something to have, to hold, to cherish. When achieved, goals are no longer of much interest. Other goals then must be defined, and means for achieving them determined. Thus, leader behaviors are seen as aspects of a *developmental* process—not something possessed or achieved. Evaluation, too, is a continuously emerging and developing process, reflecting changing goals and successive levels of accomplishment. Creativity and imagination are needed as appraisal procedures are developed and utilized.

Widely Varying Situations Require Custom-Made Appraisal Procedures

Because of our heritage of local control of education, communities differ considerably in what is expected of their schools and their school leaders. Although a common body of basic values is undoubtedly supported quite generally in communities, appraisal techniques will necessarily have to be tailored to a particular school system. Techniques and processes developed for use in one community may not be appropriate and effective in another, because the aspirations of the people may differ greatly.

Appraisal techniques satisfactory at one level of the school's functioning, or at one period in time, may not be appropriate at another. As a result, leaders interested in determining the effectiveness of certain techniques or procedures must constantly create methods for securing needed data and for communicating this information to interested and concerned individuals and groups. Processes must be established and continuously improved, moreover, so that rational judgments will be based on available or obtainable data. Future actions of individuals and groups must also be evaluated in terms of the extent to which judgments reached in the appraisal process are later translated into action.

Teaching-Learning Processes Are Complex

Use of appraisal techniques to improve leadership for instruction is difficult because educational goals are multiple and teaching-learning processes are complex. If goals were unitary, determining whether learning experiences had been improved would be a simpler process. When, however, an attempt is made to achieve not only locally identified goals but also goals such as those enumerated by the Educational Policies Commission (12), determining progress is an exceedingly complex undertaking (8).

The complexity of teaching-learning processes can easily be demonstrated. Children and youth learn in school, but they also learn outside of school through communicative agencies and by participating in community life. If children perform better on tests given by the school than they did previously, this fact cannot be accepted as prima-facie evidence that instruction has improved. The improved performance may be a result of out-of-school learning. Indeed, the tests may have provided situations which encouraged simple regurgitation of nonfunctional knowledge rather than the use of knowledge in solving problems. In other words, the tests themselves may not have been related to the clearly defined objectives.

Appraisal Must Be Undertaken

Many problems are inherent in the use of appraisal techniques to improve the effectiveness of instructional leadership. Attempts should be made, nevertheless, to determine the value of various leadership processes and techniques. Leaders need to know which leadership behaviors result in better teaching and learning, and which are ineffectual or, perhaps, detrimental. Attempts should be made, despite complexities of the task, to determine whether other ways of providing instructional leadership would result in greater gains. Knowledge of present conditions and guidelines for future action should be forthrightly sought.

Unfortunately, persons in official positions frequently fail to recognize the differences between their own behavior and the behavior which they know to be desirable (22). As human beings, we are sometimes able to see the mote in another person's eye much more clearly than we perceive a beam in our own. Recognition of this fact forces acceptance of the thesis that, in using appraisal as a means of improving the effectiveness of instructional leadership, procedures must be devised which utilize data obtained from many members of the staff. Attempts also must be made, of course, to help leaders improve their own perception of their effectiveness. As was shown in Chapter Two, leader behaviors depend in part upon the role perceptions of the leaders and upon those of the persons with whom they work.

Criteria for Appraising the Effectiveness of Leadership and Instruction

Criteria stated or implied are essential in any process of appraisal or evaluation. The extent to which values deemed desirable are supported provides both a description of present status and an identification of areas in which future efforts are needed.

Previous chapters of this yearbook have, in essence, supplied criteria which anyone concerned may use in appraising present practices of educational leaders. In order to aid school workers undertaking systematic appraisal of existing programs, basic criteria from earlier chapters are now to be identified and listed. The appraisal procedures utilized should seek to determine the extent to which the stated criteria are met. Suggestions concerning techniques for obtaining needed data about the worth of leadership practices, and the extent to which educational objectives are being achieved, are provided in the final sections of this chapter.

As the criteria are used, three ideas should constantly be kept in mind. First, *the basic goal of education is behavioral change by learners.* Unless learners gain more understandings, develop more wholesome attitudes, use skills more effectively, and function more consistently as self-directive, intelligent citizens, the instructional program is not effective. Also the leadership provided for instructional improvement must, in such instances, be judged ineffective. The focus of attention must be kept on change—not status. The extent of the learners' present accomplishments should be determined as a bench mark from which to measure direction and degree of change. Progress made from one point in time to another is of greater significance in appraising instructional leadership than current achievements, no matter how superior the latter may seem to be.

Second, *the heart of the program of leadership for the improvement of instruction is teacher effectiveness in the classroom.* Improvement in teaching effectiveness should result in greater growth on the part of the learners. The assumption is made that if teachers really are learning more of that which they need to know in order to teach effectively, if they are behaving more as they need to behave to be highly effective in the classroom, the program of leadership is sound and good. In appraising the effectiveness of the program of leadership, attention needs to be given to an analysis of the gains made in knowledge, attitudes and skills by teachers.

Third, *the continued growth of leaders and the development of new leaders are essential for progress.* Unless leaders continue to grow in their effectiveness, their leadership will in time become stultified. Unless new leaders are identified and developed, the quality of future leadership may be impaired. In using appraisal processes to improve instructional leadership an attempt, therefore, should be made to determine whether official leaders are continuing to grow and whether new leaders are being developed.

The following criteria have been organized under eight categories. The categories are not mutually exclusive, nor are they meant to be all-inclusive. Groups or individuals wishing to appraise leadership practices should use the criteria freely—modifying, deleting or adding other criteria in terms of locally held values and goals.[1]

I. *Educational Objectives*

1. Individuals and groups are actively involved in defining and clarifying educational goals and objectives.

2. Agreement has been reached on the role of the school among the educational agencies of the community.

3. A common direction for the educational enterprise has been established, and cooperative effort directed to the achievement of these mutually held goals.

4. People with conflicting values and beliefs harmonize them sufficiently so that they are able to act cooperatively and with unity.

5. Individuals and groups with specialized interests have established a proper balance between such interests and the concerns of the larger community.

---

[1] See page 185 for a summary of these criteria.

II. *Role Perception*

1. The roles of individuals and subgroups in the total educational enterprise are clearly defined and are understood.

2. The functional working relationships of all staff members are clearly defined and are understood.

3. The role of specialized resource persons has been clearly defined cooperatively, and is understood by all members of the staff.

4. Individuals and groups clearly understand authority-responsibility-power relationships.

5. Persons able to conceptualize the total tasks of the school help others to perceive more clearly the relationship of their roles to the total educational enterprise.

6. Areas in which individuals and groups are free to operate are clearly defined and understood.

7. Teachers and noncertificated personnel participate in making crucial rather than only the routine decisions.

8. Group discussions are held frequently to clarify purposes and roles. These discussions are initiated by official leaders.

9. Leadership emerges from the group at all levels of the school system's operation.

10. Status is achieved through group acceptance and demonstrated competence.

11. Official leaders are perceived by members of the groups they lead as being helpful.

12. Officially designated leaders of the staff bring special competencies and skills to the groups with which they work.

13. Leaders regularly examine possible sources of confusion in the conceptions held by others concerning the leaders' roles.

14. Leaders have achieved reasonable clarity and conviction concerning expectations of others regarding their roles.

15. Leaders are not expected to hold the same perceptions or to discharge responsibilities using identical means.

16. Leaders help all staff members to reassess their roles in terms of emerging evidence from the sciences undergirding education.

17. Leaders help individuals and groups to place problems or events in an ordered sequence according to importance.

18. Recognized leaders support the school program and members of the staff as they work to improve both.

19. The central administrative staff coordinates efforts for improvement of instruction rather than imposes its plan of activity on teachers.

20. The major function of the building principal is conceived to be that of providing instructional leadership for his staff.

21. Attention is given, insofar as possible, to the personality needs of every person in the school structure.

III. *Organizational Structure*

1. Rules of procedure are developed by the total staff working under the direction of the superintendent.

2. Rules of procedure are recorded and constantly tested in action to determine their effectiveness in achieving goals.

3. The organizational structure provides for development of procedures to carry policy agreements into action.

4. The organizational structure provides for functions which may be described as catalytic, coordinating, expediting, consulting, helping, appraising, and controlling.

5. The organizational structure is modified when this is essential to facilitate the teaching-learning process and not the reverse.

6. The organizational structure operates successfully in consolidating the gains made by individuals so that the entire staff is improved.

7. The organizational structure provides systematic and effective procedures for identifying and developing all individuals with leadership potential.

IV. *Group Action and Morale*

1. Administrative officials encourage cooperative planning and deliberation by school staff and other groups.

2. Groups evidence movement toward mutually held goals, productivity in achieving these goals, and maintenance of group solidarity.

3. Individuals and subgroups evidence high morale as they work together.

4. Human relations skills are in evidence in all aspects of the school's functioning.

5. The staff acts rationally in resolving issues and in seeking solutions to problems.

6. Qualities that enhance interaction of persons in the group may be described in terms such as initiative, originality, communication, empathy, cooperation, understanding, cohesiveness, morale, productivity.

7. Decisions regarding program changes are cooperatively made on the basis of the most objective data obtainable.

8. The total staff is encouraged toward realizing its potential.

9. Teachers encountering teaching or other difficulties feel free to seek assistance.

V. *Experimentation*

1. The climate of the school situation is conducive to creativeness, experimentation, and expression of individual skill and talent.

2. Experimentation is regularly conducted to discover better ways of using the intelligence of people in solving the problems of the schools.

3. Hypotheses which have been established for improving practices are being tested in action.

4. New ideas which seem to the instructional staff and the patrons to have promise are tested by school workers to determine their effectiveness.

5. Individuals and groups are eager to explore or experiment with suggestions which are made by the group.

6. The staff uses knowledge and data effectively in solving problems and resolving issues.

7. Provision is made so that all staff members are constantly acquiring new skills, understanding, and attitudes.

8. Although most program decisions are made at the local school level, consideration is given to a system-wide framework of common purposes, philosophy, and scope that gives unity and guidance to individual schools and staff members.

VI. *Communication*

1. Channels of communication are effectively established for a regular flow of ideas to the center of control and from it to every interested person and group.

2. Much communication within the defined structure consists of face-to-face discussion, and sufficient staff is provided to make this possible.

3. Many ways are used to provide discussions related to school policies: system-wide and building staff meetings, open forums, neighborhood discussions, parent-teacher meetings, grade-parent meetings, student-parent forums, and total community groups.

4. Much communication within the schools and the school system is informal in nature.

5. All staff members are frequently informed regarding legal limitations placed upon the schools and the policies established by the local board. These policies should be available in written form.

VII. *Resources*

1. An effective structure or organization has been created so that available resources may be known to all and may be used wisely in improving instruction.

2. The organizational structure is such that individuals and groups are encouraged to reach out beyond known resources for imaginative and creative solutions to problems.

3. Resources from outside the group are used effectively to help clarify goals, resolve issues, catch new insights, and develop new skills.

4. Lay and professional resource persons in addition to the regularly employed staff are identified and used as needed for improving instruction and contributing to staff growth-in-service.

5. Specialized resource persons such as psychologists, guidance workers, physicians, nurses, and social workers are employed, and they assist in improving instruction.

6. Effective use is made of available instructional materials, and new resources are constantly sought and made available.

7. Funds are available so the individual school can secure inexpensive materials when they are needed instead of going through slow requisitioning processes.

8. The principal of the school and the teacher of the class are clearly seen as the agents through whom resources are related to learning situations for children.

VIII. *Evaluation*

1. Procedures have been established for evaluating the effectiveness of instructional leadership processes.

2. Administrators, teachers, specialized personnel, parents, and pupils all participate as appropriate in the appraisal processes.

Appraisal Techniques and Procedures

Much of the evaluative process is essentially a judgment making process. In order, therefore, to make sound judgments concerning the quality of instructional leadership, numerous factors must be considered. Different types of data must be collected and analyzed. Schools already may be collecting much of the needed data, but the schools may not be using these facts in appraising instructional leadership.

The following types of data usually are available or are easily obtainable and should be used as judgments are made concerning the adequacy of the leadership: age-grade distributions; results of intelligence and achievement tests; marks given pupils; extent of retention at each grade level and the reasons for such retention; the extent of and reasons for nonattendance; elective courses chosen by youngsters (which should be compared with their ability and achievement records); personnel turnover in both professional and noncertificated staffs; the kinds of questions teachers ask; age, preparation and previous professional experience of staff members; number of teachers participating in in-service education activities, and the types of experiences they are having; number of years since staff members have attended college or have had significant learning experiences, such as overseas travel; and grievances or complaints made by parents, pupils and staff members. Such valuable data often are disregarded, yet by using these facts a good start can be made in determining the adequacy of leadership practices.

So that appraisal processes may make a maximum contribution to the improvement of leadership behaviors, additional data will probably have to be secured. The following representative procedures for obtaining additional facts necessary for intelligent decision making may need to be used imaginatively by leaders and groups: systematic observation by members of the professional staff; use of check lists and opinionnaires; descriptions of processes used by instructional leaders; analyses of logs, anecdotal records, or narrative accounts of previous activities which have been kept or made by leaders and group members; use of observers to analyze participation patterns; public opinion polls; reports of committees established to appraise aspects of the program; surveys by professional persons who are not members of the staff; systematic use of evaluative guides to analyze the total school program; and self-evaluation by persons responsible for providing instructional leadership. Additional information regarding programs of students, their progress, and teacher attitudes and/or perceptions should also be secured. Descriptions of instruments and processes which can be used to obtain such data are contained in many of the professional books listed in the bibliography of this chapter.

How the Superintendent Might Proceed

A superintendent interested in using appraisal processes to improve instructional leadership might proceed in any one of several ways. Whatever he does should promote and nurture self-appraisal as an essential aspect of professional spirit and effectiveness. One of his major concerns, then, will be the creation of readiness for evaluation among the total staff, so that evaluative processes will not be projected arbitrarily onto the group by his actions. Rather, processes and techniques utilized should develop naturally as a result of common purposes and mutual concern.

The processes chosen should, of course, be harmonious with the structure and organizational framework already established in the school system. For example, if an administrative council or some other type of advisory committee to the superintendent has been established, and good working relationships exist so that mutual respect prevails, the superintendent probably would ask this group for suggestions. In order to facilitate discussion and deliberation, he might circulate, in advance of a meeting, a brief statement indicating the desirability of frequent appraisal and suggesting possible lines of action. He might then pose several questions for the group members to consider and to discuss with their colleagues prior to the council meeting. Among the questions might be these: "Are we effectively using what we know to improve the quality of leadership provided in our school system? What steps might we take to determine more accurately our present status and to discover areas which need our thoughtful consideration?"

At the meeting, the superintendent or a staff member might indicate to the council the types of data which are already available in the central office or in individual school offices. A panel might discuss the extent to which such data are being used in analyzing structure and processes of instructional leadership. Then the total committee might discuss the basic questions included on the agenda.

Future steps would be determined by the reactions of the group. Outside consultants in evaluative procedures and action research techniques might meet with the group at its next meeting to suggest possible ways of proceeding. Time for the council members to think about possibilities, and to discuss these with their colleagues, should be provided before plans are completed. During the process, group members will want to ask: "What information is needed in order to make intelligent judgments regarding the effectiveness of leadership for improving instruction? How can the needed information be obtained? How can the information be secured so that it will adequately reflect feelings and perceptions of group members? How can it be obtained so that it can be analyzed and interpreted effectively? Should the findings of the group be communicated to all concerned? How can information best be provided for other interested persons? What techniques can be created to stimulate reflection that will result in plans for improvement? What organization or procedures can be created to insure that good ideas actually will be put into practice?"

There is no one best procedure for all superintendents to follow in using appraisal techniques to improve leadership for instruction. Probably there is a best way for each superintendent in his particular situation. Involvement of representative groups of staff members in the decision-making processes likely will result in the development of an improved way of proceeding. Such involvement is no guarantee that a better procedure will be designed than the superintendent might himself create—but whatever plan is developed cooperatively is likely to receive more wholehearted support of staff members and a higher degree of their involvement. A process of mutual participation, moreover, provides learning opportunities for both the staff and the leader. Everyone is likely to learn something as a group works conscientiously to develop appraisal procedures and techniques.

Superintendents will wish to consider other possible ways of proceeding, including these:

1. Encourage secondary school faculties which are using the evaluative criteria to go beyond the guide in thoroughly analyzing leadership structures and functions (4). If several schools are using the evaluative guide simultaneously, a committee with representatives from each school might obtain additional data about feelings and perceptions of staff members. Elementary schools in the high school districts might also simultaneously undertake an evaluation program using one of the many guides which have been developed (16). In such an instance, a coordinating committee from all schools probably should be selected.

2. Encourage principals, curriculum directors, supervisors and persons with similar leadership responsibilities to join with teachers in taking a hard and critical look at the structure established for achieving coordination throughout the system. Emphasis should be placed upon obtaining and using data to make more rapid progress toward mutually held goals. Tape recordings, questionnaires, check lists, and free response sheets can be used to obtain information and keep sources anonymous. Emphasis should be centered not on what is wrong, but on "what we now do" and on "what we might do better."

3. Begin to study processes of leadership now extant in the system by using the criteria presented on pages 164-68. Secure needed data from staff members, being careful to protect their rights to differ and to express their own opinions and feelings.

The advice and help of outside consultants may well be used as steps are taken to appraise present procedures and as plans are made to improve instructional leadership processes. A particular effort should be made to maintain and increase opportunities for staff members to share in making significant decisions as work progresses.

How a Principal Might Proceed

Because principals are representatives of the central administration, they undoubtedly will be involved in appraisal procedures initiated by the superintendent. Principals should have an opportunity to influence the choice of appraisal procedures and also should be expected to help in collecting, organizing and interpreting data regarding leadership practices.

In addition to the contributions principals can make to the appraisal of total system policies and practices, they should lead in instituting appraisals of practices in the local school. Within the framework of legal restrictions and board policies, most schools have or should have considerable freedom. Even when system-wide practices and structures are not being appraised, evaluative processes can be used to improve instructional leadership practices within the school.

The principal may proceed in several ways. He might, for example, ask all members of the staff to help him identify the inconveniences and annoyances that interfere with their effectiveness. If warm human relationships exist, and if the group works together well, teachers will not hesitate to say: "Is there any way we could cut down on classroom interruptions?" or "Must the public address system be used so frequently during the day?" or "Is there any way the level of confusion in the cafeteria could be lowered a bit?" or "How can we improve the scheduling of the gymnasium and the audio-visual equipment?" When teachers feel secure, they usually are quite eager to identify practices which they feel are unsatisfactory.

The principal might stimulate the staff to undertake an evaluation, systematically and cooperatively, of the school's functioning. Particular emphasis might then be given to such factors as materials available for use, effectiveness of the current in-service education program, methods of planning for and bringing about change, and resources outside the school staff which are needed or can be utilized. During the course of the evaluation the principal and his staff might wish to use an adaptation of the Guess-Who technique or Q-Sort procedures to gain insights into the manner in which staff members view the school and its practices. Much information about feelings and perceptions can be secured from staff members, both certificated and noncertificated, through informal discussion. Much can also be secured through systematic observations in classrooms, halls, and on playgrounds, when the observations are accepted by the staff as legitimate, necessary, and constructive.

The staff of the school and its principal might wish to duplicate and distribute the criteria presented on pages 164-68 a few days in advance of a staff meeting, using much the same procedure as was previously suggested for the superintendent. The focus of discussion in this case, of course, should be practices in the individual school. Concern about and suggestions for improvement of system-wide practices will, nevertheless, frequently result. The principal, and an advisory committee from the staff, will need to decide what to do with suggestions for improvement of system-wide practices. Eventually, however, such suggestions should reach the central office. If delay in presenting suggestions of needed changes to higher authority seems desirable to the principal and the committee, they should make an explanation to the entire staff. The suggestions, however, should not be tabled indefinitely.

Principals also may have particular concerns which they can begin to appraise directly. Faculty meetings, for instance, may not have the zip they should have. Enthusiasm of the staff for such meetings may be less than desirable. Without involved procedures, the principal could begin to collect data about staff meetings which would help him, together with the staff, to look critically at present practices. Types of information he will need include: length and frequency of meetings; agenda analysis—especially to determine the nature of the meetings; feelings of the staff and himself about the meetings; how other faculties in the system are using such meetings; suggestions from the state department of education and from professional groups about improving staff meetings; ideas which can be gleaned from literature concerning group leadership; participation checks; and follow-up studies of agreed-upon policies to determine to what extent practices are subsequently changed. Such information should help both the staff and the principal make sound plans for improving present practices.

How a Supervisor Might Proceed

As a member of the central staff especially charged with instructional leadership, the supervisor will be particularly concerned with using appraisal techniques to improve leadership practices. He will probably have opportunities to share in planning appraisal processes initiated by an administrative council and will likely be asked to provide consultant services as school faculties use appraisal techniques. The supervisor can make real and lasting contributions to school systems by endeavoring to learn more about action research techniques already proven effective. From his knowledge of action research he will know that the involvement of many people in problem identification, in hypothesizing, and in data collecting and interpreting increases the likelihood that strong commitments to change behavior may result from such study.

The supervisor, because of his acknowledged role on the staff, can proceed to use appraisal processes in several ways. He might, for instance, seriously try to determine which of the many in-service education activities planned for and by the staff seem to be producing the greatest returns in improved instruction. Teachers who have participated in in-service education activities could be asked to indicate the usefulness of the various experiences provided. Sincere desire for improved practice on the part of the supervisor will usually be met by eagerness to contribute suggestions on the part of teachers and principals.

Although some thought should be given to practices already tried, greater attention should be given to "what ought to be" or "what might be." Simple check lists and open-ended questionnaires can be used to gain much information about the effectiveness of procedures tried and to get suggestions for future action. Small advisory groups of teachers can be asked to discuss with the supervisor the relative effectiveness of in-service activities and consultative services. Principals, too, can be asked to contribute their judgments. Since in-service education activities are designed to bring about changed behavior in teachers and other staff members, the questions asked should seek evidence concerning the amount and the quality of learning that has occurred. Observations of subsequent teacher behaviors, analyses of logs kept by teachers, principals or supervisors, and reports of procedures tried will provide some hunches, at least, which can be used in making future plans.

The supervisor, collaborating with a research department, could design and carry out controlled experiments to test the efficacy of certain procedures. If the supervisor works with staffs of four schools, for instance, two different ways of working could be experimentally tried. For example, first grade teachers in two of the schools might be eager to work on improving the activities designed to develop reading readiness early in the school year and the better pacing of learning tasks throughout the year. In the other two schools, the first grade teachers might be particularly interested in working on developing phonetic skills. The supervisor could guide both groups so that agreements on the ultimate goals of successful reading would be cooperatively developed. With the help of the research department, ways of measuring achievement or progress toward such goals would be devised. Statistical analyses of the results obtained, even with all the variables existing, could provide some interesting data concerning whether children make greater gains when teachers concentrate on readiness and pacing or when they concentrate on phonetic training. These data might then lead to further studies. Subjective judgments of parents, qualified outside observers, and the teachers themselves should be systematically sought as the appraisals are made.

The supervisor might, instead, concentrate attention on helping two beginning teachers who seem to have approximately equal ability in the classroom. Admittedly, the two teachers will not be equal in all respects, and some extremely broad assumptions will need to be made at the outset about their eagerness and ability to learn. Nevertheless, the supervisor would systematically seek to bring about greater teaching skill on the part of the two teachers. Records of actions taken, experiences provided, attempts made, coupled with teachers' logs, evaluative statements of principals and parents, photographs of the classrooms at regular intervals, and achievement records of the pupils could subsequently be analyzed by the supervisor, the teachers and others not emotionally involved in the situation. The analysis should seek to discover what techniques seemed to work best or to bring about the most rapid growth in teaching effectiveness. Subsequent efforts with other new teachers would lend support to the judgments made, or raise doubts about their general applicability.

No one way of appraising instructional leadership will be useful in all situations. The entire staff will need to direct its creative energies to the problems of cooperatively designing ways of proceeding. Outside consultants, especially those with competence in research design, can give special help as plans for appraisal are made.

How a Teacher Might Proceed

Teachers, too, can and should use appraisal techniques in an attempt to improve their leadership practices. High school teachers, or those at any level who teach two similar classes daily, are well situated for experimental testing of their practices. In one class, new or untried ways of proceeding can be utilized; while in the other group, the teacher does the best possible job using regular classroom procedures. Such experimentation is likely to be more effective if research plans are carefully defined in advance, if consultant help on research design and appraisal is provided by a research department or by a nearby college or university, and if subjective judgments of pupils, parents, supervisors, and principal are systematically sought.

A teacher might also choose to experiment with a new technique utilizing only a single group because no control group is available. Although appraisal in such instances must of necessity be more subjective, better ways of providing leadership are likely to result. The teacher, after all, is most advantageously situated for systematic observation of behavior change in learners. Keeping careful records of procedures used and results obtained will in time enable teachers to discard some techniques and adopt others.

For example, a first grade teacher recently set out to experiment with the use of a listening table in her classroom.[3] She constructed a table with both a disc and tape recorder and with headsets for eight children. During the first year's experimentation she used the listening table in many different ways. Much of the so-called seatwork provided in connection with learning to read was performed at the table under the direction of the teacher's recorded voice. At the same time she was working with another group of children. Many enrichment activities were also recorded, including stories, poems, and information which in the teacher's judgment the children needed or would enjoy. Sound tracks from motion pictures were recorded so that the group at the table could watch a movie without distracting others in the room. A careful log of activities was kept by the teacher.

---

[3] For this example the author is indebted to Miss Earline DeMoss, first grade teacher, Plain Dealing, Louisiana.

The principal, supervisor, and officials of the state department were asked to observe and evaluate the usefulness of the listening table. The teacher's subjective judgments about the behavior changes in these pupils as compared with those in other groups she had taught, while not statistically significant, provide rather conclusive evidence that she and the children had an unusually profitable year together. The teacher is eager to continue experimentation, utilizing more objective measures. Her enthusiasm for the listening table and her systematic attempt to keep a record of her experimentation with it undoubtedly resulted in improved instructional leadership.

General Suggestions for Other Leaders

The descriptions just presented of how superintendents, principals, supervisors, and teachers might begin to use appraisal techniques to improve leadership for instruction should provide suggestions for other persons in leadership positions. Processes chosen for use in any setting should be selected in terms of the leader's position and responsibilities, the amount and types of data already available, current working relationships, perceptions held, and the availability of consultant help. Emphasis should be placed on getting helpful information before decisions are made. The processes chosen should be locally designed, but they should utilize tested research techniques to the maximum possible extent.

Summary

Appraisal processes can and should be used to improve leadership and instruction. In order to obtain information, appraisal processes should focus attention on certain aspects of the school's functioning at particular times. The results obtained from such appraisals should then be combined and coordinated. These results can be used as the basis for further planning and action.

As appraisal processes are used to examine critically the structure and function of leadership and the effectiveness of the instructional program, the emphasis should consistently be "where we are" in the process of our becoming "what we want to be." Data obtained should not be used to close doors to opportunity, but rather to clarify goals, identify new goals, and determine the effectiveness of present practices in relation to the goals. Plans for action to modify perceptions and behaviors should result.

In conclusion, the committee responsible for this yearbook wishes to emphasize that appraisal is a valuable process which can be utilized to help improve leadership and instruction. It is, however, only a means—not an end. The suggestions which have been made have value only as they are used to bring about improvement in the quality of leadership for instruction. As school staff members use appraisal processes to help clarify goals and perceptions and to help analyze the effectiveness of practices, they will become better leaders. As they provide better leadership, learning and instruction will improve. These are the ways in which the goals expressed here will be attained.

Bibliography

1. AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION, STUDIES IN INTERGROUP RELATIONS. *Diagnosing Human Relations Needs.* Washington, D. C.: the Council, 1951. 155 p.
2. ASSOCIATION FOR SUPERVISION AND CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT *Action for Curriculum Improvement.* 1951 Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, a department of the National Education Association, 1951. 248 p.
3. ASSOCIATION FOR SUPERVISION AND CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT. *Research for Curriculum Improvement.* 1957 Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, a department of the National Education Association, 1957. 350 p.
4. COOPERATIVE STUDY OF SECONDARY SCHOOL STANDARDS. *Evaluative Criteria: 1950 Edition.* Washington, D. C.: the Study, 1950. 305 p.
5. CPEA PROJECT, COLLEGE OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA. *A Guide for Cooperative Evaluation of the Principal's Performance in Terms of Competencies Essential to Effective School Administration.* Athens, Georgia: the Project, n.d. 45 p. (Mimeo.)
6. GUBA, EGON G., and CHARLES E. BIDWELL. *Administrative Relationships: Teacher Effectiveness, Teacher Satisfaction, and Administrative Behavior.* Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1957. 118 p.
7. HAND, HAROLD. *What People Think about Their Schools.* Yonkers-on-Hudson: World Book Company, 1948. 219 p.

8. KEARNEY, NOLAN C. *Elementary School Objectives.* New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1953. 189 p.
9. KELTNER, JOHN W. *Group Discussion Processes.* New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1957. 373 p.
10. LIPPITT, RONALD; JEANNE WATSON; and BRUCE WESTLEY. *The Dynamics of Planned Change: A Comparative Study of Principles and Techniques.* New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1958. 312 p.
11. MACKENZIE, GORDON, and OTHERS. *Instructional Leadership.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1954. 209 p.
12. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION and AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS, EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION. *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy.* Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1938. 57 p.
13. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION. *How Good Are Your Schools?* Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1958.
14. NATIONAL SCHOOL PUBLIC RELATIONS ASSOCIATION. *Feel Their Pulse: A Guide to School Opinion Polling.* Washington, D. C.: the Association, a department of the National Education Association, 1956. 48 p.
15. NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATION. *In-Service Education for Teachers, Supervisors, and Administrators.* Fifty-Sixth Yearbook, Part I. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1957. 356 p.
16. SHANE, HAROLD G., and E. T. MCSWAIN. *Evaluation and the Elementary Curriculum.* New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1958. 436 p.
17. SHUMSKY, ABRAHAM. *The Action Research Way of Learning: An Approach to In-service Education.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1958. 210 p.
18. SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS, THE COOPERATIVE PROGRAM IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION. *Looking at Your School.* Atlanta: the Association, 1955. 17 p.
19. SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS, THE COOPERATIVE STUDY IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION. *Evaluating the Elementary School.* Atlanta: the Association, 1951. 325 p.
20. THELEN, HERBERT A. *Dynamics of Groups at Work.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1954. 379 p.
21. VANDER WERF, LESTER S. *How to Evaluate Teachers and Teaching.* New York: Rinehart and Company, 1958. 58 p.
22. WILES, KIMBALL, and HULDA GROBMAN. "Principals as Leaders." *Nation's Schools* 56:75-77; October 1955.
23. YAUCH, WILBUR A. *How Good Is Your School?* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1951. 213 p.

DEMOCRATIC LEADERSHIP AND THE FUTURE

THIS CHAPTER will identify the major ideas presented in the several parts of this volume, placing these in perspective. This section does not offer detailed consideration of these fundamental ideas. Frequent cross references to the earlier chapters will remind the reader that more extended treatment is available in the appropriate section.

It is hoped that this final interpretation will be useful in highlighting the purposes, fundamental assumptions and illustrative practices of democratic leadership. The purposes of the book will be well served if the reader is enabled to select ideas which will be useful in changing his own perceptions or behavior as a group member or leader, either emergent or official.

This book has four major parts:

1. The social setting which calls for forward movement to higher levels of democratic leadership is examined in Chapter One.

2. The nature of democratic educational leadership is presented in Chapters Two and Three.

3. The meaning of these leadership concepts for educational roles and responsibilities and for the selection and preparation of leaders is developed in Chapters Four and Five.

4. The appraisal processes which may be used to improve instructional leadership are presented and developed in Chapter Six.

The present chapter briefly examines each of these four parts of the book. It concludes with a statement concerning the significance of democratic educational leadership in the years immediately ahead.

Urgent Need for Increased Democratic Educational Leadership

We live in an increasingly complex world. Urbanization, bigness, and speed of change tax present human ability to work out adjustments to the problems and intricacies of our world. The rapid multiplication of enormously complex problems calls for all possible help from organized education.

Under these circumstances, educational leaders face two kinds of pressures. One is the pressure to increase authoritarian methods and demands for compliance and conformity in order to get the job done. This is the pressure of an anxious society for educational practices which both experience and research indicate are not effective or consistent with the goals of a democratic civilization. Some American educational leaders are submitting to these pressures.

Another kind of pressure on today's informed educational leader comes from the mass of significant new information now available from the behavioral sciences. These additions to our knowledge adequately demonstrate that we have become capable of innovating systematically in order to cope with the problems we face. This becomes possible chiefly through our freedom to create and through the inventiveness, inner conviction, ideas and dedication which become available when individuals can freely share responsibility. Democratic leadership behavior affords an open rather than a closed system of thought which, in the long run, is much more likely to supply us with better solutions.

From anthropologists, philosophers of history, psychologists and sociologists we are learning (a) that every civilization is a totality with its own predominating values, and (b) leadership within a society is governed by what is valued in that society. Both communist totalitarianism and American democracy increasingly depend on educated people to meet the problems of rapidly changing industrial civilization. But the organic nature of culture makes it possible for totalitarianism to accomplish more of what it values through compliance and conformity, and for our democratic society to achieve better solutions through viewing individuals and groups as growing, dynamic and creative.

Currently there is a pressing need for all school personnel to pay more attention to the larger situation—the context of democracy—as the primary basis for decision making. Our advantage is found in the freedom and responsibility of the individual and in the democratic leader who shares authority through cooperative effort. Educational leaders are uniquely obligated to continue to widen the search for a clearer image of our values and what they mean in the lives of men. In the present world struggle between totalitarianism and democracy all persons concerned with the educational enterprise are obligated to press toward higher levels of democratic leadership. On each of us rests the decision as to whether the world of the future will be slave or will be free.

The Nature of Democratic Educational Leadership

More than 500 recent research studies[1] now provide us with basic information regarding the nature of leadership. These studies, if properly used, will give great impetus to our increased use of democratic leader behaviors. Fourteen propositions resulting from these research reports are given in Chapter Two. Perhaps the most fundamental of these are the following:

1. Leadership is a product of the interaction that takes place among individuals in a group and not of the status or position of these individuals. Status assignments may enhance or reduce the effectiveness of leader behavior.

2. All group members have leadership potential and exhibit leadership behaviors, to some degree. Leadership potential is not centered in one or two persons in a group.

3. Behaviors that help a person to be a leader in one situation may not work equally well in others. Because a person exhibits leader behavior in one group does not guarantee that he can or will do so in others. Leadership shifts from situation to situation.

4. The effectiveness of leader behavior is measured in terms of mutuality of goals, productivity in the achievement of these goals, and the maintenance of group solidarity.

These research conclusions indicate that, to be democratic, it is imperative that leadership activity be exercised in such ways as to:

---

[1] Generalizations resulting from these studies may be found on pages 55-57.

(a) increase group interaction and cooperative planning, and (b) create a favorable climate for the growth of individuals and the emergence of potential leaders. These results are achieved through the active participation of all group members in leader behavior as democratic official leaders regularly share their authority and responsibilities.

Another approach that has increased our understanding of the nature of democratic educational leadership is the exploration of the perceived role relationships that exist within any organization or group. Extensive research findings during the past 10 years have supported the perceptual view of behavior. This theory holds that leaders and other group members behave as they do because of the way things seem to them. Each leader's and each member's perception of his role governs his action; each member's perceptions of the roles of others determine his behavior toward them. Extensive research indicates that, in many groups, numerous conflicts exist as to the role expectancies that group members have for one another. There is much evidence from studies in various areas that a considerable measure of agreement regarding role perceptions is important to group morale, productivity, and the total success of any group operation. Agreement concerning roles is best achieved through democratic group exploration.

Confusion in our thinking about the nature of democratic educational leadership and lack of agreement regarding role expectancies often cause us to vacillate in our leadership practices. Fortunately research now provides us with basic information which can be used to strengthen leader behavior characterized by greater development of freedom and responsibility.

Leaders in Action

Chapter Four gives attention to what actually happens in school systems when democratic educational leadership is practiced. Under these circumstances leadership is a product of group interaction; every group member is regarded as a potential leader making worthwhile contributions; cooperative procedures are extensively utilized. Many illustrations of this kind of leadership are given and several of the official leadership roles in instructional improvement are examined. The chapter makes clear that leaders in action for instructional improvement will be constantly seeking out and helping to develop the leadership potential in others.

Discovery and Development of Leaders

Ten assumptions underlying leadership discovery and development[2] are presented in Chapter Five. Two of these will be especially noted here: (a) potential leaders should be tested in actual school situations, and (b) in the selection of official leaders, groups affected by the leadership position should participate in the process of selection.

Testing potential leaders in actual situations may provide crucial data. Findings may form or may supplement results afforded by tests dependent on verbalization, since leadership potential reveals itself in situational insight as well as in total overt behavior. Often an individual's perceptions regarding a position are quite different after he has had experience in it. Frequently one's perceptions of himself as a potential official leader and the perceptions of others regarding his expected behavior are quite different from those which result from his actual experience in a leadership role. Internships and testing periods have much merit as we attempt to select official leaders who can utilize democratic leader behavior in improving instruction.

Results of leadership research indicate that a group member is not really a leader in the group unless he is perceived as a leader by other group members. Leadership cannot be truly conferred by an official position; it must be earned. Democratic leadership would be substantially furthered by getting at the perceptions of the members of the group affected by an official leadership position when potential official leaders are to be identified, selected or prepared.[3] If this is done, certain individuals will emerge as the group's recognized potential official leaders. Persons to be given preparation as democratic official leaders should be selected from among this group. Getting at the perceptions of the people concerned should be the first step in the selection of official leaders.

Programs and methods for democratic leadership education deserve the serious attention of all educators. Such programs are one of the important ways in which we can move toward the increased practice of democratic leadership.

Appraisal of Democratic Instructional Leadership

Appraisal must be undertaken to determine the value of different leadership processes or techniques to resolve: (a) whether they contribute to the improvement of instruction, and (b) whether they are autocratic and lead to conformity, or democratic and result in creativity, responsibility and greater freedom.

---

[2] See page 128.

[3] See pages 140-41.

Chapter Six lists 65 criteria under eight categories[4] which may be used in this process of evaluation. These criteria should be of great value to any individual or group attempting to achieve a greater degree of democratic leadership for the improvement of instruction. In order to help keep these criteria in mind, they have been summarized into five general statements and key concepts which follow.

Criteria for Appraising Democratic Instructional Leadership

All interested individuals, community groups, and staff members:

1. Are actively involved in the cooperative definition, clarification, achievement and evaluation of educational goals and objectives (Goals).

2. Share in the development and regular review of the school system's organizational structure, channels of communication, rules of procedure, and resources available for furthering the educational enterprise (Structure).

3. Participate appropriately in the leader behavior and definition of all role assignments required by the educational enterprise through growth in individual skills and talents. As a result of their perceptions concerning demonstrated competence and appropriate leader behavior, they participate in determining who shall be appointed to official educational leadership positions (Roles).

4. Support and encourage growth in human relations skills, cooperative planning, creativeness and experimentation by all staff members and others concerned with the school or school system (Ways of working).

5. Participate in establishing and regularly utilizing appraisal practices which are appropriate for the instructional leadership procedures in the educational enterprise (Evaluation).

In order to make most effective use of these criteria, the more detailed list and the accompanying discussion should be read on pages 163-77.

---

[4] See pages 164-68.

Significance of Democratic Educational Leadership for the Years Ahead

The goal and responsibility of democratic educational leadership is the improvement of instruction in America's schools. The heart of the instructional improvement program is the fostering of teacher effectiveness in the classroom. Democratic leadership practices help teachers to see themselves positively, enable them to accept themselves and others, and give them a high degree of identification with their associates. Sharing freedom and responsibility enables teachers to provide students with opportunities to think of themselves as responsible citizens and contributing members of society.

Greater use of democratic leadership methods by educational personnel makes it possible for more teachers to guide democratic classrooms in which there is emphasis on cooperative activities and respect for the need, integrity and potentialities of all members of the group. Such classrooms provide a wide variety of opportunities for success and appreciation through creative achievement.

Today security and social justice are the first priorities of all mankind. The world is undergoing an era of rising expectations and a further turbulent expansion of the industrial revolution everywhere. Our task is to see that the new balance among these goals does not shift in the direction of conformity and security at the expense of freedom and individual responsibility.

Leaders in education must renew their faith in and practice of the democratic ideology at this time when not only American citizens but many peoples of the world look for the positive expression of that faith. America's teachers bear more responsibility than others for the constant redefinition and reformulation of democratic values. What happens in America's classrooms is an integral and important part of the process of determining whether the individual's inventiveness, inner conviction, and creativeness may count for more than direct action, imposed decisions, and the whip. Our use of what we now know about democratic leadership can free the human forces which will make the difference in the years ahead.

Appendix

Other Persons Who Assisted in the Preparation of the Yearbook

Chapter II

HAROLD L. BODA
Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Dayton, Ohio

LESTER L. DICKEY
Superintendent of Schools, Hamilton, Ohio

ALBERT J. DILLEHAY
Assistant Superintendent of Schools in Charge of Instruction, Akron, Ohio

ALEXANDER FRAZIER
Director, Center for School Experimentation, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio

ROBERT S. GILCHRIST
Superintendent of Schools, University City, Missouri

MARTHA L. KING
Franklin County Elementary Supervisor, Columbus, Ohio

PAUL R. KLOHR
Assistant Dean and Coordinator of Instruction, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio

ARTHUR J. LEWIS
Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Minneapolis, Minnesota

ROLAND B. LEWIS
Professor of Education, Central Washington College of Education, Ellensburg, Washington

W. W. MILLER
Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Columbus, Ohio

FORREST L. MORAN
Director of Instruction, Public Schools, Newark, Ohio

WENDELL PIERCE
Superintendent of Schools, Cincinnati, Ohio

ROBERT WALTER
Research Assistant, Center for Educational Administration, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio

Chapter III

RONALD C. DOLL
Professor of Education, New York University, New York, New York

MILTON J. GOLD
Associate Professor of Education, Hunter College of the City of New York, New York

James A. Hall
Superintendent of Schools, Public Schools, Port Washington, New York

Paul M. Mitchum
Director of Secondary Education, Public Schools, Wilmington, Delaware

A. Harry Passow
Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York

Richard N. Percy
Director of Personnel, Public Schools, Kalamazoo, Michigan

Albert J. Perelli
Director of Instruction, Board of Education, Hinsdale, Illinois

George M. Sharp
Director of Instruction, Montclair Public Schools, Montclair, New Jersey

Charles R. Spain
Superintendent of Schools, Public Schools, Albuquerque, New Mexico

Chapter IV

Glen E. Barnett
Assistant Dean, College of Education, University of Texas, Austin, Texas

Eddie W. Belcher
Director, Division of Curriculum, Louisville Public Schools, Louisville, Kentucky

Reba M. Burnham
Acting Director, Georgia Program for Education of Supervisors, College of Education, University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia

Eston K. Feaster
Dean, College of Education, West Virginia University, Morgantown, West Virginia

Theron Freese
Assistant Superintendent, Long Beach Public Schools, Long Beach, California

Ruth Gorman
Principal, School Number 82, Indianapolis Public Schools, Indianapolis, Indiana

William S. Graybeal
Acting Director of Secondary Education, Fairfax County Public Schools, Fairfax, Virginia

James A. Hall
Superintendent of Schools, Port Washington, New York

Waldro J. Kindig
Principal, Dwight Morrow High School, Englewood, New Jersey

L. S. Michael
Principal, Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois

T. S. NURNBERGER
Vice-President, Michigan Bell Telephone Company, Detroit, Michigan

STUART L. OPENLANDER
Superintendent of Schools, Dearborn, Michigan

KENNETH J. REHAGE
Associate Professor of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois

GALEN SAYLOR
Chairman, Department of Secondary Education, Teachers College, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska

C. EDGAR STAHL
Principal, Emmerich Manual Training High School, Indianapolis Public Schools, Indianapolis, Indiana

JAMES STOCKARD
Chairman, Board of Education, Arlington County Public Schools, Arlington, Virginia

KIMBALL WILES
Assistant Dean and Professor of Education, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida

Chapter V

MARCILLENE BARNES
Director of Instruction, Grand Rapids Public Schools, Grand Rapids, Michigan

WALTER CREWSON
Associate Commissioner, University of the State of New York, State Department of Education, Albany, New York

J. BERNARD EVERETT
Director of Instruction, Newton Public Schools, Newton, Massachusetts

HELEN M. FLINT
Training Specialist, Military Petroleum Supply Agency, Washington, D. C.

G. JAMES GHOLSON
Principal, Fairmont Heights High School, Prince Georges County, Maryland

JOHN D. GREENE
Director of Instruction, East Baton Rouge Parish School Board, Baton Rouge, Louisiana

THERAL HERRICK
Director, Department of Instruction and Guidance, Kalamazoo Public Schools, Kalamazoo, Michigan

ROBERT K. HIRZEL
Instructor, Department of Sociology, University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland

ARTHUR N. HOFSTETTER
Acting Director for Education of Supervisors, College of Education, West Virginia University, Morgantown, West Virginia

ANN S. HOPPOCK
Assistant Director of Elementary Education, Division of Curriculum and Instruction, State Department of Education, Trenton, New Jersey

L. DAVID KORB
U. S. Civil Service Commission, F at Eighth Streets, N. W., Washington, D. C.

KENNETH E. MCINTYRE
Director, School Principalship Project, University of Texas, Austin, Texas

CHARLES MCKAY
Superintendent of Schools, Warwick Public Schools, Warwick, Rhode Island

ROBERT E. MURRAY
Superintendent of Schools, Schenectady Public Schools, Schenectady, New York

CLARENCE NEWELL
Professor of Educational Administration, College of Education, University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland

GENNETTE NYGARD
Supervisor of Elementary Education, Arlington County Public Schools, Arlington, Virginia

GEORGE M. SHARP
Director of Instruction, Montclair Public Schools, Montclair, New Jersey

ROBERT J. SHOCKLEY
Principal, Loch Raven Elementary School, Baltimore County, Maryland

JOHN STERNIG
Assistant Superintendent, Glencoe Public Schools, Glencoe, Illinois

C. TAYLOR WHITTIER
Superintendent of Schools, Montgomery County, Rockville, Maryland

Chapter VI

R. M. CHENAULT
Principal, Warner School, Nashville, Tennessee, and President, National Department of Elementary School Principals

RALPH KIMBROUGH
Associate Professor of Education, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida

JOHN R. LONG
Chairman of the Board of Education of Robertson County, Springfield, Tennessee

JAMES F. REDMOND
Superintendent of Schools, New Orleans, Louisiana

HUGH WATERS
Supervisor of Secondary Education, Nashville City Schools, Nashville, Tennessee

Editorial Review of Yearbook Manuscript

HENRY DECK
Athletic Director, Largo High School, Largo, Florida

MARY MYERS ELLIOTT
Dean of Students, Buchholz Junior High School, Gainesville, Florida

HAROLD D. HAZELWOOD
Teacher, Ribault High School, Jacksonville, Florida

JAMES A. JONES
Dean of Boys, Turkey Creek Junior High School, Dover, Florida

LORENE LAWSON
Reading Specialist, Pinellas County Public Schools, Florida

CHARLES W. MOORE
Principal (on leave), Lealman Junior High School, St. Petersburg, Florida

MARILYN SCHOPPMEYER
Graduate Student, College of Education, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida

PHYLISS WEISS
Teacher, Terry Parker High School, Jacksonville, Florida

ASCD Board of Directors

(As of November 1, 1959)

Executive Committee, 1959-60

President, William M. Alexander, Chair., Dept. of Ed., George Peabody Coll. for Tchrs., Nashville, Tenn.

President-Elect, Arthur W. Foshay, Exec. Off., Horace Mann-Lincoln Inst. of Sch. Experimentation, Tchrs. Coll., Columbia Univ., N. Y.

Vice-President, Jane Franseth, Spec. for Rural Ed., Office of Ed., Dept. of Health, Ed., and Welfare, Washington, D. C.

Chester D. Babcock, Exec. Dir., Dept. of Instr. and Curric. Res., Seattle Pub. Schs., Washington

Susan Crutchfield, Dir. of Elem. Ed., Pub. Schs., Galveston, Tex.

Lavone A. Hanna, Prof. of Ed., San Francisco St. Coll., San Francisco, Calif.

Marcella Lawler, Prof. of Ed., Tchrs. Coll., Columbia Univ., N. Y.

Members Elected at Large:

Mildred Biddick, Pub. Schs., Denver, Colo. (1963); Leo P. Black, St. Dept. of Ed., Denver, Colo. (1960); Nelson L. Bossing, Univ. of Minnesota, Minneapolis (1960); William H. Bristow, Pub. Schs., New York City (1962); Margaret Chenoweth, Pub. Schs., Janesville, Wis. (1962); Joyce Cooper, Univ. of Fla., Gainesville (1961); George Denemark, Univ. of Wis., Milwaukee (1963); Charles H. Dent, Univ. of Tex., Austin (1960); Ruth Dodds, Sacramento Co. Schs., Sacramento, Calif. (1961); Agnes Ann Doreen, Pub. Schs., Midland, Tex. (1962); Elizabeth Z. Howard, Univ. of Chicago, Chicago, Ill. (1960); C. W. Hunnicutt, Syracuse Univ., Syracuse, N. Y. (1961); Leland B. Jacobs, Tchrs. Coll., Columbia Univ., N. Y. (1960); Arthur J. Lewis, Pub. Schs., Minneapolis, Minn. (1963); Gertrude Lewis, Off. of Ed., Washington, D. C. (1963); A. Harry Passow, Tchrs. Coll., Columbia Univ., N. Y. (1963); Gaylen Saylor, Univ. of Neb., Lincoln (1962); Helen H. Sornson, Ball St. Tchrs. Coll., Muncie, Ind. (1962); Maycie K. Southall, George Peabody Coll. for Tchrs., Nashville, Tenn. (1961); William Van Til, New York Univ., N. Y. (1961).

State Representatives to the Board

Alabama—Robert C. Hatch, St. Dept. of Ed., Montgomery; E. P. Lauderdale, Alabama Coll., Montevallo; L. G. Walker, Co. Supv., Marion; J. T. Williams, Carver High Sch., Gadsden. *Arizona*—James J. Jelinek, Ariz. St. Univ., Tempe; Caroline Tuttle, Pub. Schs., Phoenix. *Arkansas*—Hazel Dabney, Pub. Schs., Pine Bluff; Louise Phillips, Pub. Schs., Magnolia. *California*—Sue E. Erwin, Pub. Schs., Bellflower; Nellie L. Frost, Santa Barbara Co. Schs., Goleta; Lavone Hanna, San Francisco St. Coll.; Edith Merritt, San Francisco St. Coll.; George P. Rusteika, Alameda Co. Schs., Castro Valley; Burton C. Tiffany, Chula Vista Elem. Sch., Chula Vista. *Florida*—Marian Watkins Black, Fla. St. Univ., Tallahassee; Susan Dowdell, Hillsborough Co. Schs., Tampa; John P. McIntyre, St. Dept. of Ed., Tallahassee; John W. Seay, Pub. Schs., Ocala. *Georgia*—Johnnye V. Cox, Athens; Corine Knight, Valdosta St. Coll., Valdosta; Lutian Wootton, Univ. of Georgia, Athens. *Hawaii*—Lotty Canady, Dept. of Pub. Inst., Honolulu;

Marjory Hieronymus, Dept. of Pub. Inst., Honolulu. *Idaho*—Evelyn S. Thirkill, Bannock Co. Schs., Pocatello; William G. Ward, Pub. Schs., Idaho Falls. *Illinois*—Fred Barnes, Univ. of Ill., Urbana; Lillian Davies, Rich Township High Sch., Park Forest; Cecilia Lauby, Ill. St. Normal Univ., Normal; Pauline Meyer, Menard Co. Schs., Petersburg; John Frater, Cook Co. Schs., Maywood. *Indiana*—Anne McAllister, Pub. Schs., Elkhart; William Paul Moser, New Albany-Floyd Co. Cons. Sch. Corp., New Albany; Edgar M. Tanruther, Indiana St. Coll., Terre Haute. *Iowa*—Etta L. Cosner, Pub. Schs., Davenport, R. T. Grau, Pub. Schs., Clinton. *Kansas*—Delore Gammon, Pub. Schs., Wichita; Eunice McGill, Sterling Coll., Sterling. *Kentucky*—Eddie W. Belcher, Pub. Schs., Louisville; Curtis Mathis, Harlan; Roy B. Smith, City Schs., Owensboro. *Louisiana*—John D. Greene, East Baton Rouge Parish Sch. Bd., Baton Rouge; Dorothy Kell, Natchitoches Parish Schs., Natchitoches; Bonnie Mae Smith, City Schs., Lake Charles. *Maryland*—Vernon E. Anderson, Univ. of Maryland, College Park; Anne W. Caldwell, Mont. Co. Schs., Rockville; Mildred Hoyle, Prince Georges Co. Schs., Upper Marlboro. *Michigan*—Paul Carter, Univ of Mich., Ann Arbor; Josephine Culhane, Pierson Sch., Flint; Robert Kingsley, Pub. Schs., Midland; Alvin Loving, Univ. of Michigan, Flint; H. Leroy Selmeier, Pub. Schs., Grosse Pointe. *Minnesota*—Frances A. Blake, Pub. Schs., St. Louis Park; Harry Sartain, Roseville Pub. Schs., St. Paul. *Missouri*—J. E. Morris, Bd. of Ed., Ferguson; Raymond A. Roberts, St. Dept. of Ed., Jefferson City; W. J. Underwood, Pub. Schs., Lee's Summit. *Montana*—Mulford Franks, Montana St. Coll., Bozeman; John Shively, Pub. Schs., Bozeman. *Nebraska*—Frances M. Davis, Univ. of Nebraska, Lincoln; Pearl R. Schaaf, St. Dept. of Ed., Lincoln. *New Jersey*—Eleanor E. Helfrich, Dir. of Elm. Ed., Atlantic City; Howard Morris, Pub. Schs., Salem; Robert G. Payton, Pub. Schs., Summit; Harold Shafer, Pub. Schs., Ridgewood. *New York*—Stanley Applegate, Pub. Schs., Manhasset; Gerald Cleveland, Pub. Schs., Syracuse; Grace Gates, Pub. Schs., Clarence; Bernard W. Kinsella, Pub. Schs., Rochester; Joseph Leese, N. Y. St. Coll for Teachers, Albany; Hazel Prehm, Pub. Schs., Great Neck. *North Carolina*—Catherine Howan, Gaston Co. Schs., Gastonia; Martha Johnson, Pub. Schs., Charlotte; Madeline Tripp, St. Dept. of Pub. Inst., Raleigh. *Ohio*—Phila Humphreys, St. Dept. of Ed., Columbus; Allen King, Bd. of Ed., Cleveland; Martha King, Ohio St. Univ., Columbus; Hugh Laughlin, Ohio St. Univ., Columbus; Forrest L. Moran, Pub. Schs., Newark. *Oklahoma*—Richard Collier, Oklahoma St. Univ., Stillwater; Helen M. Jones, Pub. Schs., Oklahoma City. *Oregon*—Lloyd F. Millhollen, Pub. Schs., Eugene; Evelyn Piper, Pub. Schs., Eugene; Helen E. Schaper, Pub. Schs., Portland. *Pennsylvania*—M. Louise Lowe, Pub. Schs., Philadelphia; Gerald M. Newton, Beaver Co. Schs., Beaver; Albert I. Oliver, Jr., Univ. of Pa., Philadelphia; Howard Stewart, Pub. Schs., New Castle. *Puerto Rico*—Irma Vincenty de Lopez, Pub. Sch., Santurce; Aida A. de Vergne, Univ. of Puerto Rico, Rio Piedras. *South Carolina*—Mrs. Dewitt Brunson, Pub. Schs., Orangeburg; Velle Toney, St. Dept. of Ed., Columbia. *South Dakota*—Alice Gilbert, Pub. Schs., Huron; Ethel R. Oyan, Washington High Sch., Sioux Falls. *Tennessee*—Earl Ramer, Univ. of Tenn., Knoxville; Arthur Rauscher, Shelby Co. Schs., Memphis; R. Lee Thomas, St. Dept. of Ed., Nashville. *Texas*—Bertha Brandon, Waco Independent Sch. District, Waco; Raymond Free, Pub. Schs., Galena Park; Gladys Henninger, Pub. Sch., Austin; Gladys Polk, Brazosport

Schs., Freeport; **Frank Williams**, Pub. Schs., Dallas. *Utah*—**George Miller**, Pub. Schs., Salt Lake City; **Arletta Williams**, Pub Schs., Kaysville. *Virginia*—**Sue F. Ayres**, Charles City and New Kent Co. Schs., Providence Forge; **Cecil A. Belcher**, Pub. Schs., Bristol; **S. G. Stewart**, August Co. Schs., Staunton. *Washington*—**John Amend**, Highline Schs., Seattle; **Clifford M. Johnson**, King Co. Schs., Seattle; **Harold E. Wenzel**, Pub. Schs., Aberdeen. *West Virginia*—**Martha Cottrell**, Kanawha Co. Schs., Charleston; **Audra G. Lambert**, Randolph Co. Schs., Elkins. *Wisconsin*—**Beatrice Burgdorff**, Co. Supv. of Schs., Waukesha; **Martha Mattson**, Pub. Schs., Wausau; **Rebecca Watson**, Supv. Elem. Ed., Waukesha. *New England Region* (*Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Vermont*)—**John O. Goodman**, Univ. of Conn., Storrs; **Zelda Gordon**, Bd. of Ed., Kittery, Maine; **Elizabeth Foster**, St. Tchrs. Coll., Worcester, Mass.; **Ann C. Peters**, Keene Tchrs. Coll., Keene, N. H.; **Karlene Russell**, St. Dept. of Ed., Montpelier, Vt. *Rocky Mountain Tri-State* (*Colorado, New Mexico, Wyoming*)—**Loyd D. Crane**, Pub. Schs., Cheyenne, Wyo.; **Eugene R. Gullett**, Pub. Schs., Boulder, Colo.; **Goldie R. Huey**, Pub. Schs., Casper, Wyo.; **Vondolee S. Page**, Pub. Schs. Santa Fe, N. M.

ASCD Headquarters Staff

1201 16th Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

Executive Secretary, **Margaret Gill**
Associate Secretary; Editor, ASCD Publications, **Robert R. Leeper**
Associate Secretary, **O. L. Davis, Jr.**

Index

Action research, 37, 137-38, 154, 156, 174
Administrative organizational manual, 98
Advisory committees, 62, 100, 112, 123-24
American Association of School Administrators, 33, 145
American Educational Research Association, 43
Appraisal of schools, continuous, 43-44, 61, 99-100
Appraisal of leadership, 99-100, 160-78, 184-85
  procedures, 169-70, 173-76, 177-78, 184-85
Aristotle, 10
Assistant principal, 34, 139
Assistant superintendent, 117-19
Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA, 135
Authoritarianism, 6-7, 9, 12-13, 20, 53-54
Authority, problem of, 10, 11, 53-54

Behavior, improvement of, 89, 163
Benedict, Ruth, 15, 22
Bidwell, C. E., 81
Blackman, Charles A., 38

Carroll, K. M., 83
Case studies, leadership, 151-52
Cause for which to live, men seek a, 20
Central office staff, services of, 93-97
Change, concepts of, 35-36, 89
Chase, F. S., 81, 82
Climate for growth, creating a, 44-48, 101-103, 131-38, 183
Committees, as leadership preparation, 100, 133-34
Communication, 42-43, 60, 100-101, 167-68
  effective, 100-101, 167-68
  for leadership appraisal, 167-68, 185
Communication of image of democracy, 18
Communism, 13
Community activities, as leadership preparation, 136-37, 146
Conformity, 20-22, 24, 181, 186
Consideration, 38
Consultants
  instructional, 69-70, 113-16
  outside, 124-26, 172, 176
Controversial issues, 48
Cooperative Program in Educational Administration, 57, 145, 147, 151
Cooperative research program, 141
Coordination, central office, 47-48, 62-63
Criteria for evaluating leadership, 163-68, 185
Criteria of success in administration, 141
Criticism, leadership during, 46
Culture, an organic whole, 15-16, 181
Curriculum change, adequate theory of, 37, 88-89
Curriculum improvement, difficulties encountered in, 94
Curriculum worker, role of, 69-70

Decentralizing leadership, 99
Decision making, 14
Democracy, 6, 8, 12, 13-15, 16, 18-19, 23-24, 53, 181-82
Democratic leadership, 5-6, 8-11, 13-15, 107, 130-31, 181-82, 186
  urgent need for, 181, 182
DeMoss, Earline, 176
Department chairmen, 114-15
Department of Classroom Teachers, NEA, 43
Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA, 136
Director of instruction, 117-19
Durkheim, Émile, 15

Educational goals, 14, 27-36, 39, 90-93, 161-62, 164, 182, 185, 186
Educational leaders, opposing forces affecting, 5
Educational Policies Commission, 162
Educational Testing Service, 141, 144
Elementary principalship, study of, 141-43
Engels, Friedrich, 13
Environment, learning, improving, 45, 132
Evaluative criteria, 168, 169, 171
Experimentation, for leadership appraisal, 167

Faculty growth, 48
Fascism, 12, 13, 20
Feelings, leaders must consider, 22-24
Flesch, Rudolph, 49

Forces challenging educational leaders, 5, 9, 181-82
Freedom, 10-12, 13-15, 20-21, 182, 183, 186
Fromm, Erich, 20
Functions, teaching, 72
Fusion of courses, 151

Getzels, J. W., 78, 81, 82
Goals, educational, 14, 27-36, 39, 90-93, 161-62, 164, 182, 185, 186
Golden Age, 11
Graduate education for leaders, 145-52
Greece, 10-11
Gross, Neal, 76, 82
Group action and morale, 42-43, 47, 50, 99-103, 108, 131-33, 166-67, 182-83, 186
Growth, professional, encouraging, 44, 48, 101-103, 127-59
Guba, E. G., 78, 81, 82
Guess-Who technique, 173
Guidance counselor, leadership of, 116-17
Guidance for leadership development, 116-17, 157

Halpin, Andrew, 38, 77
Hebrews, and human dignity, 10
High school department head, 114-15
Human relations, 9-11, 21-22, 49-50, 101, 134-35, 146, 148, 152, 158
  skills, 19-20, 23-24, 49-50, 130, 133, 134-35, 138, 156, 163, 185

Ideology, modern, 12-14, 182, 186
Individual and society, 10, 11-12, 15
Individualism, 11
In-service education, 60-61, 89-97, 100, 143-44, 152-55
  for leaders, 100, 128, 138, 143-44, 152-55
Institution, social, school as, 16
Instructional improvement, 33-37, 88-89, 183, 186
  evidence of, 14, 93-97
  examples of, 93-97
  in foreign language, 93-94
  in mathematics, 94-95
  leadership functions in, 34-35, 164, 183, 186
  official leaders' roles, 107-23
  pupil leadership, 101
  teacher's role, 108-10, 164

Interdisciplinary approach, 150, 156
Internships, leadership, 129, 139, 144, 149-50, 184
Involvement, nature of, 14

Jenkins, David H., 38
Job descriptions, leadership, 130, 143, 157
Judaeo-Christian concept, 11, 52

Knower, Franklin, 43

Leader behavior, 38, 54-55, 161, 162, 181-85
  two dimensions of, 38
Leaders
  evidence of effectiveness of, 158
  in-service education of, 100, 128, 138, 143-44, 152-55
  preparation of, 82-83, 139, 144-55
  pressures on, 6-7, 8, 181, 186
  role expectations, 67-85
  selection of, 128-31, 138-44, 184
  simulated experiences in selection of, 141-43
  traits of, 54-55
  unmet needs in preparing, 155-58
Leadership
  appraisal, 99-100, 160-78, 184-85
  assumptions basic to, 15-19, 128
  capacity
    a native trait, 54-55
    problems of recognition, 130-31
  characteristics, acquired, 54-55
  concepts of, 16-17, 19-20, 25-28, 47, 51-53, 54-55
  decentralizing, 99
  democratic, 5-6, 8-11, 13-15, 107, 130-31, 182-84
  educational
  definition of, 16-17, 27, 47, 54, 55-57
    maturity of, 14-15
  emergent, 46-47, 59, 101-103, 107, 110-11, 131-32, 183-84
  identification of, 128-38, 184
  perception of role, 112, 113-14, 116, 117-18, 122, 124, 130, 163, 165, 183-85
  preparation for, greatest weakness in, 146
  research regarding, 55-57, 64, 141-43, 182-84

  responsibilities, 19, 21, 22-23, 107-23, 182-83, 186
  search for, 126
  situational, 15, 16-18, 47, 129, 131, 138-39, 182-84
  tasks, educational, 28-51, 89-106, 186
  waste of, 131, 157
Linton, George, 22

McEachern, Alexander W., 76, 82
Manual, Administrative Organizational, 98
Marx, Karl, 13
Marxism, 12-13
Mason, Ward S., 76, 82
Mead, Margaret, 15
Middle Ages, 11
Miles, Matthew B., 69
Morale and group action, 42-43, 47, 50, 99-103, 108, 131-33, 166-67, 182-83, 186
Motivation, leadership causes group, 57

National Society for the Study of Education, 35

Objectives, educational, for leadership appraisal, 164
Official leaders, characteristics of, 54-55
Ohio State Leadership Studies, 55
Organization principles for modern leadership, 58-61
Organization, school, 36, 41-42, 50, 57, 97-98
Organizational structure, and emerging leadership, 97-103, 166, 185

Parent-Teacher Association, 112
Personality needs of leaders, 69
Philosophies, cultural, 10-11, 23
Planning, cooperative, 38-44, 90-97, 183, 185
Plato, 10
Policy decisions, making of, 61-63, 182
Principal, 33-34, 62-63, 68, 70-72, 110-12, 113, 172-74
  role of, 70-72
Principal, assistant, 34, 139
Principles governing staff growth, 101-103
Professional organizations, as leadership preparation, 137
Purposes of school, community definition of, 90-93

Q-Sort, 173

Ramseyer, John A., 35
Relations, human, 9-10, 21-22, 49-50, 101, 134-35, 146, 148, 152, 158
Raths, Louis E., 72
Research regarding leadership, 55-57, 64, 141-43, 182-84
Resource personnel, 49
Resources
  adequate provision, for effective teaching, 48-51, 60, 63, 103-106
  utilization, for leadership appraisal, 168-70, 185
Responsibilities of leaders, defining, 97-101, 107-23
Role conflicts, 68, 80-85
  resolution of, 82-85
Role expectations
  diversity in, reason for, 75-80
  influence on leadership, 67-85
Rome, 10

Sachs, B. M., 79
School board, 30, 41, 62, 98, 112, 123-24
School-community relationships, 26-27, 28-33, 89-93, 136-37
School in-service programs, trends in, 152-55
Schools, result of democratic leadership, 26
Seeman, Melvin, 82
Selznick, Philip, 35, 56
Separation of personnel, 121-22
Simulated situational test, 141-43
Situational leadership, 15, 16-18, 47, 129, 131, 138-39
Socrates, 9, 23
Specialized services, 50-51
Spengler, Oswald, 16
Stogdill, R. M., 54
Stoicism, 11
Structure, initiating, 38, 50, 166
Student leadership in improving instruction, 101
Superintendent, 30-33, 51, 61, 68, 98, 119-23, 145, 147, 151, 170-72
Superintendent, assistant, 117-19
Supervisor, 63, 68, 113-16, 145, 146, 148-49, 174-76

Tasks, educational leadership, 28-51, 89-106, 186
Teacher advisory councils, 111-12
Teachers
  participation in selecting leaders, 140-41
  professional growth of, 45
  role in instructional improvement, 62-63, 108-10, 176-77
  role of, 72-74
  selection and recruitment, 120-21
  shortage of competent teachers, 120-21
Teaching, effectiveness in, 33-37, 93-97, 164, 186
Teaching activities, as leadership preparation, 133-37
Teaching functions, 72
Time element, curriculum improvement, 105-106
Totalitarianism, 12-13, 22, 181-82
Toynbee, Arnold, 16
Traits, leadership, 54-55
Trends in school in-service programs, 152-55
Trends in university programs, 148-52

U. S. Office of Education, 141
University council for educational administration, 141
University programs, trends in, 148-52
Unmet needs in leadership education, 155-58

Wagner, Paul H., 43
Waste, leadership, 131, 157
Weakness, greatest area of, in leadership preparation, 146
Weber, C. A., 44, 45, 54
Weber, Mary E., 44, 45, 54
Why Johnny Can't Read, 49
Wilcox, R. T., 79
Wispe, Lauren G., 80
Work experience, varied, for leaders, 154
Workshops, 150-51, 152-54